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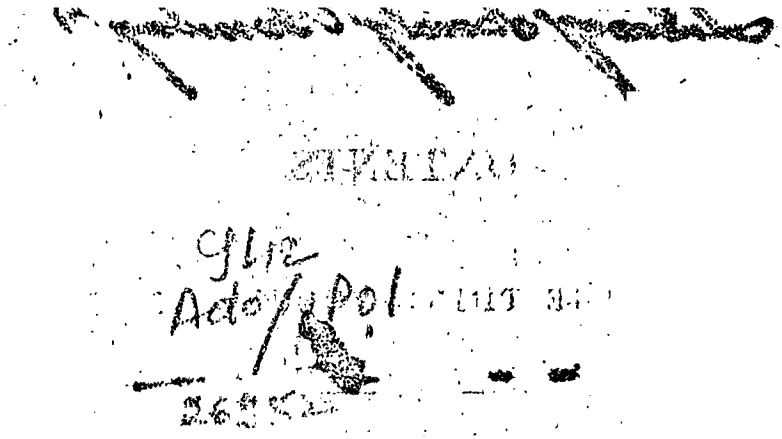

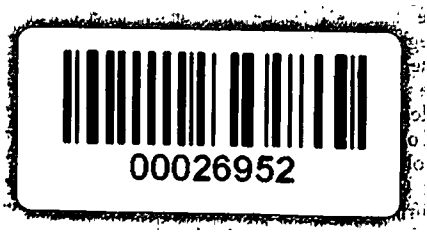
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POLITICAL STATE

OF THE

BRITISH EMPIRE.

LEARNING; THE ARTS AND SCIENCES.

AMONG the inſtitutions of civilized man, none are more deſerving of conſideration, than thoſe which prevent the decay of knowledge by extending the ſphere of human acquirements, and facilitating the diſcloſure, to future generations, of the learning poſſeſſed by the preſent. Great Britain, among her numerous claims to diſtinguiſhed rank, amid the nations of the world, cites none with more pride and confidence than thoſe which are derived from the excellence of her writers in almoſt every department of literature, and her able proficients in every branch of the arts. The deſire of literary excellence is not recent or tranſitory; in all ages, and with very few intervals, has learning been eagerly purſued. The univerſities of England are the moſt ancient in Europe, and almoſt every period of Britiſh hiſtory is adorned with the name of ſome writer of ſterling worth, and eminent celebrity; and although the Engliſh idiom is much changed, the ability of authors, even in the earlieſt times, is ſtill conſpicuous. "Numerous manuſcripts exiſt," Mr. Pinkerton obſerves, "written in the Anglo-Saxon, or Old Engliſh language, and one of its moſt claſſic authors, is the great Alfred himſelf. It appears from many works, written long after the conqueſt, that the French language, though colloquial among the great, ſcarcely imparted any tinge to the national tongue. The conqueſts of Edward III. in France, and other circumſtances not proper to be here diſcuſſed, effected, in the fourteenth century, a change in vain attempted by the Norman conqueror. Chaucer, who wrote in that period, preſents almoſt the firſt rude dawn of what may be termed the

Engliſh language. In the ſame century, that enterpriſing traveller, Sir John Mandeville, ſupplies one of the firſt ſpecimens of Engliſh proſe: as he was a man of ſome ſcience, for that time, has interſperſed ſeveral words of Latin origin, and his book was much adapted to public curioſity, he may with ſome juſtice be regarded in the new light of a father of the Engliſh language. Gower, the poet, rather preceded Chaucer; and ſerves to evince, that Chaucer did not introduce any innovations, but, as may well be ſuppoſed, wrote in the language of his time.

"In the ſucceeding century, the ſpeech had made ſuch rapid advances, that even as early as the reign of Henry VI. we find it vary very little from that of Henry VIII. There are papers preſerved by Rymer and others, written in the reign of Henry VI. and compoſed with a force and preciſion which may appear ſurpriſing. The works of Forteſcue, in the following reign of Edward IV. are not only dictated by excellent ſenſe; but, ſetting aſide the orthography, might even be peruſed by the common reader.

"In the reign of Elizabeth, a century after, the Engliſh language had acquired ſuch copiouſneſs, dignity, force, and melody, that, perhaps, in the eye of very diſtant poſterity, moderns may be ſuppoſed never to have exceeded; what is gained in elegance, being generally loſt in power. Sidney's Defence of Poeſy, may be regarded as a good ſpecimen of Engliſh proſe; not to mention Hooker's *Eccleſiaſtical Polity*, and other large works of that period, which continued to be read and admired. The common tranſlation of the Bible, is a noble ſpecimen of the dignified proſe of the following reign; beyond which it is unneceſſary to conduct this ſketch, as our libraries abound with the ſucceeding publications."

"Engliſh literature," he proceeds, "is a vaſt and inviting theme. Of the traditionary verſes of the Druids, no relic probably exiſts; and the Roman conqueſt does not appear to have inculcated letters with much diffuſion, for while we have claſſical writers of almoſt every other European kingdom ſubdued by that great nation, of France, Spain, and even of Africa; no author of thoſe periods claims a Britiſh origin. The country was ſeized by the Saxons, before Britiſh literature faintly dawned in Gildas, A. D. 560. Iriſh literature commences about the ſame period, and continued for ſome centuries, to ſupply numerous writers in the Latin language, while England remained almoſt deſtitute. But Bede, in the eighth century, redeemed this defect, in himſelf a hoſt, and, like Chaucer, the [illegible] time. The Daniſh invaſions were ruinous to [illegible]th in Great Britain and Ireland, and the great Alfred

Alfred was obliged to exert his utmoſt endeavours, in order to reſtore ſome degree of learning, even among the clergy. That admirable prince did not aſpire to Latin compoſition, but tranſlated ſome works of merit and utility; as the hiſtories of Oroſius and Bede, into the Anglo-Saxon. Aſſerius is, perhaps, the only Latin writer, who can be named between the age of Bede and the year 1100, if we except a few lives of Saints: but the Saxon Chronicle is a noble and neglected monument of this interval, which being the only civil hiſtory of England, for a ſpace of four hundred years, ought to be carefully collated with all the manuſcripts, and publiſhed with all the ſplendour of typography. About the year 1100, Engliſh literature commences a firm and ſteady pace. A numerous train of hiſtorians, poets, and other writers, fills the pages of Biography. In the fourteenth century, Roger Bacon aſpires even to the praiſe of eminent genius. In the following century, the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter were deſtructive of literature and the arts; nor will it be eaſy to name an illuſtrious author of that period; but the introduction of printing, in the reign of Edward IV. forms a memorable epoch. The writers of the ſixteenth, and following centuries, are numerous and well known.

"On a comparative view of European literature, it may be obſerved, that the Italians, its firſt reſtorers, excel in poetry, hiſtory, and other departments of the Belles Lettres; but about the year 1600, their taſte began to decline, and a mental effeminacy aroſe, which is conſpicuous in their fantaſtic ſocieties and academies, and in the extravagant flatteries which every writer thought due in politeneſs to another; the term *illuſtrious* becoming as familiar as that of *Signior* and *Madama*, a waſte of literary fame which rendered it of no value. The French even originally excelled in romance and light poetry, and that pleaſing and minute ſpecies of biography, called memoirs; they have produced few works of original genius, but yield to no nation in ſcientific productions, and in literary diſquiſitions, written with good ſenſe, preciſion, and accuracy. Spaniſh literature forms a vaſt treaſure, little known to other nations; and ſcarcely any department can be named, in which excellent writers do not appear. The native German, Daniſh, and Swediſh literature, is but of recent celebrity. To complete the ſole intention of this parallel, the grand feature of Engliſh literature is original genius, tranſmitted even from Roger Bacon, to our Shakſpeares, Miltons, Newtons, and Lockes; not to dwell here on claims more minute, but equally firm. In the ſcientific departments, England muſt yield to France, except in the various branches of mathematical knowledge, the inſtitution of

the Royal Society, and the genius of Newton, having attracted the greateſt talents within their ſphere, to the neglect of other departments of curious inveſtigation. The Engliſh clergy, who far exceed in learning any other body of that deſcription in Europe, have always cultivated claſſical literature, with diſtinguiſhed zeal and predelection.

"An old writer obſerves, that during the civil war under Charles I. there were "more good, and more bad books, "printed and publiſhed in the Engliſh tongue, that in all the "vulgar languages in Europe." Perhaps Germany may now exceed our literary efforts; yet more novels are ſuppoſed to be publiſhed in England in one month, than in all the reſt of Europe in a year. Our literary journals, in which we may alſo claim a great degree of excellence, may indicate to foreigners, the vaſt extent of modern Engliſh literature.

"The preſent ſtate of the arts in England, is worthy of ſo opulent and refined a country, and the progreſs has been rapid beyond example. The late Horace Walpole, Earl of Orford, has delineated, from the papers of the induſtrious Vertue, a pleaſing and animated picture of the hiſtory of the arts in this country. Some faint traces of painting occur in the thirteenth century; but the names and country of the artiſts do not appear, except that of William of Florence, where the art had faintly begun to revive. In the reign of Edward I. the magnificent caſtles built in Wales atteſt the genius and ſkill of the architects, while their individual fame is loſt in obſcurity: and towards the end of the fourteenth century, rich monuments of architecture and ſculpture are interſperſed with ſome few remains of painting. The Miſſals in particular, and other manuſcripts, begin to be illuminated or adorned with miniature paintings of great luſtre; and as the Gothic architecture is by ſome conceived to have originated from the ſhrines for relics, ſo the larger paintings ſeem mere amplifications of the manuſcript miniatures. But while the neighbouring Flanders began to diſplay many native names, England continued, till the laſt century, to import her chief painters from abroad, as Holbein, Antonio More, Zucchero, Janſon, Mytens, Rubens, Vandyke, Lely, Kneller, &c. &c. Yet in miniature and engraving, there were excellent native artiſts in the ſeventeenth century; and in the beginning of that century, an eminent native architect, Inigo Jones. In the beginning of the eighteenth century, even the noble architecture of Saint Paul's, did not redeem the other arts from great decline, till Hogarth inſtituted examples of ethic and characteriſtic painting, which have deſervedly excited the admiration of Europe. His fame as an artiſt has been eclipſed by his inventive genius, but his pictures of Marriage à la Mode,

and many others are finiſhed with a care, minuteneſs, and harmony, worthy of an eminent Dutch maſter. The preſent reign has not only been diſtinguiſhed by patronage of the arts, but been fortunate in exuberance of artiſts of deſerved reputation. To enumerate the living might be invidious, or occaſion ſuſpicion of partiality; but among the deceaſed may be named Sir Joſhua Reynolds, eminent in hiſtory and portrait, and by his ſcientific diſquiſition on the art; Gainſborough and Wilſon in landſcape, and many more. Though, in the ſeventeenth century, Fairthorne, and one or two others, ſhewed great ſkill and ſpirit in engraving on copper, yet our chief artiſts, even in the eighteenth century, were French, till the national fame was raiſed by Strange, Woollett, Worlidge, and others, who have been ſucceeded by ſuch a number of excellent artiſts in this department, that England excels every country, and the prints executed in London attract univerſal admiration and imitation. Architecture and ſculpture now alſo boaſt of many diſtinguiſhed native names; but in muſic we ſtill revere the ſuperior ſkill of the Germans and Italians, though our maſters far excel thoſe of any other country, and France in particular, where however the horrible diſcords faſhionable for two hundred years, begin at length to yield to the German and Italian taſte."

Universities. In deſcribing the eſtabliſhments for inſtruction, it is conſidered expedient to begin with the univerſities.

Univerſity is the name of a corporation formed for the education of youth in the liberal arts and ſciences, and authoriſed to admit ſuch as have ſtudied in it, to certain *degrees* in different faculties, which not only ſerve as certificates of proficiency in ſcience, but alſo confer on thoſe who obtain them conſiderable privileges within the univerſity, as well as ſome rank in the ſtate without it. Univerſities generally but not always comprehend within them one or more colleges.

In every univerſity, there are four faculties: *Theology; Law; Phyſic;* and the *Arts* and *Sciences;* comprehending mathematics, natural and moral philoſophy, &c.; and in Oxford, Cambridge, and ſome other univerſities, muſic is conſidered as a fifth faculty. In each of thoſe there are two degrees, thoſe of *Bachelor* and *Doctor;* for though in the univerſities of Great Britain and Ireland there is no ſuch degree as doctor in arts and ſciences, maſter of arts anſwers to the degree of doctor in philoſophy, which is conferred by many of the univerſities on the Continent.

Univerſities in their preſent form, and with their preſent privileges, are inſtitutions comparatively modern. They ſprang from the convents of regular clergy, or from the chapters of

cathedrals in the church of Rome, where young men were educated for holy orders, in that dark period when the clergy poſſeſſed all the erudition which was left in Europe. They have long been conſidered as lay corporations; but as a proof that they had eccleſiaſtical origin, it will be ſufficient to obſerve, that the pope arrogated to himſelf the right of veſting them with all their privileges; and that, prior to the reformation, every univerſity in Europe conferred its degrees in all the faculties by authority derived from a papal bull.

To the univerſities of England belong ſeveral privileges: ſome have already been noticed, as that of returning members to parliament, and of holding courts for the deciſion of cauſes in which members of their body are intereſted; and ſome others will be noticed below.

Colleges. The term College, in its moſt extended ſenſe, ſignifies an aſſemblage of bodies, or ſocieties, or of individuals into one ſociety. In this ſenſe it is uſed on the Continent, when a college of electors, princes, or cities is ſpoken of; and in England, when mention is made of the college of civilians, phyſicians, or heralds. In the more limited uſe of the term, it implies a public place, endowed with revenues, where the ſeveral parts of learning, divine and human, are taught in ſchools, halls, or claſſes appointed for that purpoſe.

Halls. In the univerſities of England are halls as well as colleges; the halls are academical houſes not incorporated nor endowed, although they have had conſiderable benefactions, which are diſpenſed to the ſtudents in exhibitions which they enjoy for a ſtated time.

Visitors. Colleges being, as already mentioned, corporations, are by the general rule affecting ſuch bodies liable to be viſited. For corporations, being compoſed of individuals, ſubject to human frailties, are liable, as well as private perſons, to deviate from the end of their inſtitution; and for that reaſon the law has provided proper perſons to viſit, inquire into, and correct all irregularities that ariſe in ſuch corporations, either ſole or aggregate, and whether eccleſiaſtical, civil, or eleemoſynary. With regard to all eccleſiaſtical corporations, the ordinary is their viſitor, ſo conſtituted by the canon law, and from thence derived to us. The pope formerly, and now the king, as ſupreme ordinary, is the viſitor of the archbiſhop or the metropolitan; the metropolitan has the charge and coercion of all his ſuffragan biſhops; and the biſhops, in their ſeveral dioceſes, are, in eccleſiaſtical matters, the viſitors of all deans and chapters, of all parſons and vicars, and of all other ſpiritual corporations. With reſpect to all lay corporations, the founder, his heirs or aſſigns, are the viſitors, whether the foundation be civil or eleemoſynary:

moſynary: for in a lay incorporation, the ordinary neither can nor ought to viſit. The colleges in the univerſities (whatever the common law may now, or might formerly, judge) were certainly conſidered by the popiſh clergy, under whoſe direction they were, as eccleſiaſtical, or, at leaſt, as clerical corporations; and, therefore, the right of viſitation was claimed by the ordinary of the dioceſe. This is evident, becauſe in many of our moſt ancient colleges, where the founder had a mind to ſubject them to a viſitor of his own nomination, he obtained for that purpoſe a papal bull to exempt them from the juriſdiction of the ordinary; ſeveral of which are ſtill preſerved in the archives of the reſpective ſocieties; and in ſome colleges in the univerſity of Oxford, where no ſpecial viſitor is appointed, the biſhop of that dioceſe, in which Oxford was formerly compriſed, has immemorially exerciſed viſitatorial authority; which can be aſcribed to nothing elſe, but his ſuppoſed title, as ordinary, to viſit this, among other eccleſiaſtical foundations. And it is not impoſſible, that the number of colleges in Cambridge, which are viſited by the biſhop of Ely, may in part be derived from the ſame original.

But, whatever might be formerly the opinion of the clergy, it is now held as eſtabliſhed common law, that colleges are lay corporations, though ſometimes totally compoſed of eccleſiaſtical perſons; and that the right of viſitation does not ariſe from any principles of the canon law, but of neceſſity was created by the common law.

Possessions. By the 7th and 8th Will. c. 37. the king may grant to colleges, as well as to other corporations and individuals, licence to alien, and to purchaſe in mortmain. The 9 Geo. II. c. 36. which reſtrains alienations in mortmain, alſo declares that its proviſions ſhall not extend to make void the diſpoſitions of any lands, tenements, or hereditaments, which ſhall be made in other manner and form than in the act is directed, to or in truſt for either of the two univerſities, or any of the colleges, or houſes of learning within the ſame; or the colleges of Eton, Wincheſter, or Weſtminſter, for better ſupport and maintenance of the ſcholars upon the foundations, provided that no ſuch college or houſe of learning, which ſhall hold or enjoy ſo many advowſons of eccleſiaſtical benefices, as ſhall be equal in number to one moiety of the fellows or perſons uſually ſtyled or reputed as fellows, ſhall be capable of purchaſing or holding any other advowſons of eccleſiaſtical benefices by any means whatſoever; the advowſons annexed to, or given for the benefit or better ſupport of the heads of any of the ſaid colleges or houſes of learning, not being computed in the number. By the 13 Eliz. c. 10. all college leaſes, other than for the term of twenty-one years, or three lives, ſhall be void. Provided that this ſhall not extend

to make good any leaſe for more years than are limited by the private ſtatutes of the college. And by the 18 Eliz. c. 6. in all college leaſes one third part of the rent ſhall be reſerved and paid in corn.

ELECTIONS. By the common law, all aſſents, elections, and grants, made with the aſſent of the major part of the fellows or brethren of ſuch corporation, were as effectual as if the whole number had aſſented; but ſeveral founders of ſuch corporations have, amongſt other local ſtatutes, eſtabliſhed, that if any one of the corporation ſhould deny any ſuch grant, then no ſuch election or grant ſhould be made; and for performance of the ſame every perſon having power of aſſent was ſworn. But this practice being found replete with diſorder and inconvenience, the 33 Henry VIII. c. 17. enacted, that every ſtatute made by any ſuch founder, whereby the grant or election of the governor or ruler, with the aſſent of the moſt part of ſuch corporation, ſhould be in any wiſe hindered by any one or more, being the leſſer number, contrary to the courſe of the common law, ſhall be void; and none ſhall be compelled to take an oath for the obſerving of any ſuch ſtatute, on pain of every perſon giving ſuch oath to forfeit 5 *l.* half to the king, and half to him that ſhall ſue in any of the king's courts of record. But ſuch major part are to attend in perſon, and to be preſent together, at the executing of ſuch act; and the aſſent muſt be given by each member ſingly, and not in a confuſed and uncertain manner; and this muſt be when they are regularly aſſembled in one certain place, and not a conſent given by the members in ſeveral places and at ſeveral times.

BRIBERY. For prevention of corruption at elections into colleges, churches collegiate, churches cathedral, ſchools, hoſpitals, halls and other like ſocieties, the 13 Eliz. c. 6. enacts, that if any perſon who has election, preſentation, or nomination, or voice or aſſent, in the choice, election, preſentation, or nomination, of any fellow, ſcholar, or any other perſon, to have room or place in any of the ſaid colleges, ſchools, &c. ſhall receive or take any money, fee, reward, or any other profit, directly or indirectly, or any promiſe, agreement, covenant, bond or other aſſurance, either to himſelf or any of his friends, for his voice, aſſent, or conſent, in ſuch election, then and from thenceforth the place, room, or office of ſuch perſon ſo offending ſhall be void, as if he was naturally dead. And if any fellow, officer, or ſcholar, ſhall directly or indirectly receive, or by any device or means, contract or agree to have or receive, any money, reward, or profit whatſoever, for the leaving or reſigning up his room or place, for any other to be placed in the ſame; he ſhall forfeit and loſe double the ſum of money, or value of the

bribe;

bribe; and every perſon by whom, or for whom, it is given or agreed to be paid, ſhall be incapable of that place or room for that time or turn. And the ſtatute is to be read at every election.

FOUNDERS KIN. Several founders have, in their ſtatutes for the government of colleges, given a certain degree of preference, in the election of ſcholars or others, to thoſe of their own blood; concerning which there has been much diſpute. It is contended on one ſide, that by length of time, all relation of kindred muſt neceſſarily wear out; on the other, that this cognation ſtill ſubſiſts, and may ſubſiſt indefinitely.

In the caſe of Wincheſter College, and of New College in Oxford, both which were founded by William of Wykeham, an inconvenience ariſing about two hundred years after the foundation, from the growing number of founders kinſmen, the college of Wincheſter rejected a claimant. The claimant's father thereupon applied (as the manner then was) to the court of chancery, and not to the viſitor, for relief; and after a ſolemn hearing, 30 Jan. 22 Eliz. 1579, it was recommended by the Lord Keeper Bromley, and aſſented to on all ſides, for the difficulty of judgment to be given, and it was ſo decreed, that the plaintiff's iſſue, for four deſcents, ſhould be admitted *as if* they were founder's kinſmen, and that he ſhould renounce all further claim to the blood of the founder; which renunciation was made accordingly.

About ten years afterwards, the fathers of two other rejected candidates applied to the ſame tribunal for ſimilar relief. Whereupon the Lord Chancellor Hatton, "gravely conſidering that the "publick benefit of the realm for the education of ſcholars in "learning (chiefly intended by the founder) would greatly be "hindered, if every of the children of the ſaid complainants "(allowing them to be of the undoubted blood of the founder) "ſhould be admitted into the ſaid colleges, being many in "number, and in a ſhort time likely to ſpread and grow into "more generations, ſufficient of themſelves to fill the number "of both colleges," referred the whole to Biſhop Cooper, who then ſat in the ſee of Wincheſter, and, as ſuch, was the viſitor of both ſocieties. The biſhop, having duly conſidered the caſe, in order to ſhew a grateful remembrance of ſo worthy a work as the founding of two colleges, declares himſelf willing to pay a regard to ſuch as even ſeem to be of the founder's blood, "ſo "that the ſame tend not to the annoying, diſturbance, or "prejudice, of the ſaid foundation; which the founder un-"doubtedly meant to make for the publick benefit of the whole "realm, and not to be appropriated, and made peculiar to one "only kindred and family." He then ſtates the vaſt increaſe of claimants,

claimants, whereby, he obſerves, "that if it be not in wiſdom "foreſeen, the number of ſcholars in both colleges is like to be "fully ſupplied by ſuch reputed kinſmen, be they apt or not apt "to be brought up in learning; ſo that the publick benefit in-"tended by the founder would be fruſtrated." He afterwards remarks (what is equally true of every other ancient college), that the revenues of the ſociety had been much augmented by other benefactors, ſtrangers to the founder's blood, who could never intend to confine their bounty within ſuch a partial channel. "In conſideration whereof, and for avoiding ſuch incon-"veniences as might come, if one blood and kindred ſhould "have both colleges in their poſſeſſion and regimen," he declares the founder's intention to have been, that the education of ſcholars ſhould more largely extend than to his own kindred, and yet that ſome convenient regard ſhould be paid to thoſe of his undoubted blood: and, therefore, the biſhop directs, that there ſhall not be at one time above the number of eighteen reputed kinſmen in the two colleges, (which conſiſt in the whole of 140 ſcholars,) to wit, eight in New College, and ten in that of Wincheſter; and that not above two ſhall be admitted at any one election into either college.

At the diſtance of near fifty years, this matter was again reconſidered on a petition (as it ſeems) to the king in perſon. For there is extant an order, dated the 31ſt Jan. 1637, made by the archbiſhop of Canterbury, the earl of Arundel and Surrey, earl-marſhal, and the biſhop of Wincheſter, to whom it was referred by the king to conſider of the claim of another Wykeham. This they determine to be groundleſs; founding their opinion on the decree of the 30th of January, 1579; and alſo on the great inconvenience that would follow, if the "founder's "conſanguinity ſhould be ſo exceedingly multiplied, as it would "be to the abſolute reſtraint of the freedom of elections, if "ſuch claims were admitted."

In the year 1651, during Cromwell's uſurpation, the ſame queſtion was brought before the committee of the Houſe of Commons, for regulation of the two univerſities, and the colleges of Eton and Wincheſter, probably with a view to re-eſtabliſh the unlimited preference of kindred; but all they could obtain was an order for augmenting the number of eighteen kinſmen, eſtabliſhed by biſhop Cooper, to twenty in both ſocieties; with a proviſo, that if more than twenty had already crept in, no more ſhould be admitted till the number was reduced to twenty.

Nevertheleſs, at this day, it muſt be acknowledged, by whatſoever means it has happened, that though the annual reſtriction of two in the ſaid colleges continues in uſe, yet the total reſtriction of eighteen or twenty has fallen into oblivion.

And

And as the limitation of *number* in the ſaid colleges has been attempted, ſo in that of All Souls in the ſame univerſity, founded by Archbiſhop Chichele, it has been endeavoured to obtain a limitation in the *degrees*, for the reaſons above expreſſed; but in the caſes that have been determined by the ſeveral viſitors, no certain boundary has been yet eſtabliſhed; the ſame having been adjudged on the particular circumſtances of each caſe.

So that it ſeems ſtill to remain a matter of great doubt. For, as on the one hand, it could never be the founder's intention to fill the college wholly with his own kindred; ſo, on the other, as he himſelf has been ſilent in that reſpect, it is difficult to ſay, at what preciſe period his particular regard for his own family and relations, however diſtant, ſhall entirely ceaſe. A limitation in point of number ſeems to be moſt appoſite, as was directed by Biſhop Cooper in the caſe of Wykeham's foundations, in ſome kind of proportion to what may be ſuppoſed, or from the regiſters of the reſpective colleges may appear to have been in the founder's days, or within an age or two afterwards; for ſo the founder's whole inſtitution will take effect: that is, far the greater part of the ſociety will conſiſt of perſons elected out of the public at large, or otherwiſe, according to the reſtrictions of the reſpective foundations: and, at the ſame time, a reaſonable regard will be had to thoſe who can prove themſelves of the founder's kindred; although it muſt be owned, at this day, that the proportion is ſcarcely ſo much, as of one drop of blood to the whole maſs.

There is in human nature a deſire of immortality, which expands itſelf without limitation even in this life. Every man wiſhes to live in his poſterity, and to tranſmit his inheritance to them at whatever diſtance. And thoſe poſterity, on the other hand, glory in deriving their pedigree through a long ſeries of anceſtors, and the higher they can aſcend, the more honourable it is eſteemed.

SUBSCRIPTIONS AND OATHS. By the 13 and 14 Chas. II. c. 4. and the 1 Will. ſeſs. 1. c. 8. all maſters, and other heads, fellows, chaplains, tutors, of or in any college, hall, houſe of learning, or hoſpital, and every public profeſſor and reader in either of the univerſities, and in every college elſewhere, who ſhall be incumbent or have poſſeſſion of any maſterſhip, headſhip, fellowſhip, profeſſor's place, or reader's place, ſhall, at or before his admiſſion, ſubſcribe the declaration or acknowledgment following, before the vice chancellor or his deputy: "I *A. B.* "do declare, that I will conform to the liturgy of the church of "England, as it is now by the law eſtabliſhed;" upon pain of loſing and forfeiting his maſterſhip, fellowſhip, or place, and being utterly diſabled, and *ipſo facto* deprived of the ſame, which ſhall

ſhall be void, as if ſuch perſon were naturally dead. But by the 2 Geo. II. c. 31. perſons who had omitted to ſubſcribe were indemnified, provided they ſhould then ſubſcribe before Dec. 25, 1729. By the aforeſaid ſtatute of Chas. II. every governor or head of any of the ſaid colleges or halls ſhall, within one month next after his election or collation and admiſſion, openly and publickly in the church, chapel, or other publick place of the college or hall, and in the preſence of the fellows and ſcholars, or the greater part of them, then reſident, ſubſcribe unto the thirty-nine articles of religion, mentioned in the ſtatute of the 13 Eliz. c. 12, and to the book of common prayer, and declare his unfeigned aſſent and conſent unto, and approbation of the ſaid articles, and of the ſame book, and to the uſe of all the prayers, rites, and ceremonies, forms and orders, in the ſaid book preſcribed and contained, according to a preſcribed form. And all ſuch governors or heads of the ſaid colleges and halls, or any of them, as ſhall be in holy orders, ſhall, once at leaſt in every quarter of the year, (not having a lawful impediment,) openly and publickly read the morning prayer and ſervice, in and by the ſaid book appointed to be read, in the church, chapel, or other publick place of the ſame college or hall, upon pain to loſe and be ſuſpended from all the benefits and profits belonging to their ſituation, for the ſpace of ſix months, by the viſitor of the college or hall; and if any governor or head of any college or hall, ſuſpended for not ſubſcribing unto the ſaid articles and book, or for not reading the morning prayer and ſervice, as aforeſaid, ſhall not, at or before the end of ſix months next after ſuch ſuſpenſion, ſubſcribe unto the ſaid articles and book, and declare his conſent thereto, as aforeſaid, then ſuch government or headſhip ſhall be *ipſo facto* void.

By 1 Geo. I. ſt. 2. c. 13. all heads and members of colleges, being of the foundation, or having any exhibition, of eighteen years of age; and all perſons teaching pupils; and all perſons in general admitted to any office in any ſuch college, eccleſiaſtical or civil, ſhall (within ſix months after their admiſſion, 9 G. II. c. 26.) take and ſubſcribe the oaths of allegiance, ſupremacy, and abjuration, in one of the courts at Weſtminſter, or at the general or quarter ſeſſions of the peace, on pain of being diſabled to ſue or uſe any action; or to be guardian, executor, or adminiſtrator; or capable of any legacy or deed of gift; or to be in any office; or to vote at any election for members of parliament; and to forfeit 500*l.* to him who ſhall ſue. And if any ſuch head or member, being of the foundation, or having any exhibition, of eighteen years of age, ſhall neglect or refuſe to take and ſubſcribe the ſame, or to produce

produce a certificate thereof under the hand of ſome proper officer of the reſpective court, and cauſe the ſame to be entered within one month in the regiſter of ſuch college or hall; and if the perſons in whom the right of election ſhall be, ſhall neglect or refuſe to elect another for the ſpace of twelve months, the king ſhall nominate to ſuch place vacant; and if the perſon lawfully authoriſed to admit, ſhall neglect or refuſe to admit ſuch perſon ſo nominated by the king, for the ſpace of ten days, the local viſitor ſhall admit him within one month; and if he ſhall refuſe, the king's bench may compel him by *mandamus*.

And if it is a *civil* office (not *eccleſiaſtical*) they ſhall, moreover, by the 25th Chas. II. c. 2. on the like penalty, within three months after their admiſſion, receive the ſacrament in ſome public church, on the Lord's day, immediately after divine ſervice and ſermon; and, in the court where they take the oaths, ſhall firſt deliver a certificate of ſuch their receiving, under the hands of the miniſter and church warden; and ſhall then make proof of the truth thereof by two witneſſes; and ſhall, alſo, when they take the ſaid oaths, make and ſubſcribe the declaration againſt tranſubſtantiation.

But there is an indemnifying clauſe in ſome act of parliament, every two or three years, provided they comply within a time therein limited.

By the ſtatute 13 and 14 Chas. II. c. 4. already referred to, no form or order of common prayers, adminiſtration of ſacraments, rites or ceremonies, ſhall be openly uſed in any church, chapel, or other publick place of or in any college or hall in either of the univerſities, the colleges of Weſtminſter, Winchester, or Eton, or any of them, other than what is preſcribed or appointed to be uſed in and by the book of common prayer:—Provided, that it ſhall be lawful to uſe the morning and evening prayer, and all other prayers and ſervice preſcribed in and by the ſaid book, in the chapels or other publick places of the reſpective colleges and halls in both the univerſities, in the colleges of Weſtminſter, Winchester, and Eton, and in the convocations of the clergy of either province, in Latin (it is not ſaid of what tranſlation).

And by the ſame ſtatute, at all times when any ſermon or lecture is to be preached, the common prayers and ſervice, in and by the book of common prayer appointed to be read for that time of the day, ſhall be openly, publickly, and ſolemnly read, by ſome prieſt or deacon, in the church, chapel, or place of publick worſhip, where the ſaid ſermon or lecture is to be preached, before ſuch ſermon or lecture be preached; and that the lecturer there to preach ſhall be preſent at the reading thereof:—Provided, that this ſhall not extend to the univerſity churches, when any ſermon or lecture is preached, as the publick

lick univerſity ſermon or lecture; but that they may be preached or read as heretofore. Several canons alſo provide for a due adherence to the faith and liturgy of the Church of England.

PRINTING. The privileges of the univerſities in this are very extenſive. It has been decided, after a ſolemn and protracted argument, that they are intruſted with an authority, concurrent with that of the king's printer, to print ſtatutes and abridgments of them. The 15th Geo. III. c. 35. enables the two univerſities in England, the four in Scotland, and the colleges of Eton, Weſtminſter, and Wincheſter, to have for ever the ſole right of printing ſuch books as have been, or ſhall be, bequeathed to them, unleſs the ſame have been or ſhall be bequeathed for a limited time. They may alſo ſell the copyright, in the like manner as any author, under the proviſions of the 8 Ann.

The 21 Geo. III. c. 56. reciting, that the power of granting a liberty to print almanacks and other books was heretofore ſuppoſed to be an inherent right in the crown; and the crown had, by different charters, granted to the univerſities of Oxford and Cambridge the privilege of printing almanacks, which the univerſities had demiſed to the company of ſtationers of the city of London, receiving an annual ſum of 1000*l.* and upwards as a conſideration, which money had been expended in promoting different branches of literature and ſcience; and that the privilege or right of printing almanacks had been, by a late deciſion at law, found to have been a common right, over which the crown had no controul, and, conſequently, the univerſities poſſeſſed no power to demiſe it to any particular perſon or body of men, whereby the payments ſo made to them by the company of ſtationers had ceaſed; enacts, that, out of the duties granted by that act, there ſhall be paid 500 *l.* a year to each of the two univerſities, half-yearly, at Midſummer and Chriſtmas.

OTHER PRIVILEGES. In other reſpects the univerſities have ample privileges. They have a concurrent power with the archbiſhops and biſhops in granting licences to preach; and ſeveral other rights with reſpect to orders and pluralities. Their charters are reſpected in many acts of parliament; as thoſe relating to the appropriation of firſt fruits and tenths; and licenſing phyſicians and ſurgeons; the heads of colleges and halls may be juſtices of the peace without the qualification of property; and their members of parliament are in like manner exempted. Within their juriſdictions, the vice-chancellors fix the aſſize and price of bread, licenſe taverns and ale-houſes; the reſidents are exempt from ſerving in the militia and other forces; every diſtinct chamber is ſeparately aſſeſſed to the taxes; and many other rights and exemptions of leſs importance are ſecured to thoſe learned bodies.

OXFORD.

OXFORD. The origin of this univerſity is involved in obſcurity. According to Camden, even in the times of the Britons, Oxford was the ſeat of learning. Some ſtudents removing thither from Cricklade, a monaſtery was founded by St. Frideſwide, in the time of the Saxons, which was burned and rebuilt by king Ethelred. When the Danes were reduced by Alfred, that prince is ſaid to have founded three colleges, one for philoſophy, another for grammar, and a third for divinity, in the year 886; ſo that, on this conſideration, Alfred ſeems rather the reſtorer than the founder.

GOVERNMENT. The Univerſity of Oxford is under the management of the following officers:

CHANCELLOR. The Chancellor is uſually a nobleman, and is elected by the ſtudents for life; diplomas, or letters of degrees, proviſions, &c. given in the univerſity, paſs under his ſeal, and he is to govern the univerſity, preſerve and defend its rights and privileges, convoke aſſemblies, and adminiſter juſtice among the members under his juriſdiction.

HIGH STEWARD. The High Steward is nominated by the chancellor, and approved by the univerſity; his appointment is for life; he aſſiſts the chancellor in the execution of his various duties; and ſits as judge in the courts of the univerſity.

VICE CHANCELLOR. The Vice Chancellor is always in orders, and the head of a college; he is nominated by the chancellor, and elected by the univerſity in convocation, annually. He exerciſes the chancellor's power, and keeps the officers and ſtudents to their duty. He alſo appoints four officers under the name of *pro-vice-chancellors*, collected from the heads of colleges, to officiate in his abſence.

PROCTORS. There are two Proctors, who are maſters of arts choſen yearly out of the ſeveral colleges in turn, to keep the peace, puniſh diſorders, overſee weights and meaſures, order ſcholaſtick exerciſes, and the admiſſion to degrees.

PUBLICK ORATOR. The duty of the Publick Orator is, to write letters by order of the convocation, and to harangue princes and other great men, when they viſit the univerſity.

OTHER OFFICERS. The remaining officers are, *a keeper of the archives*; *a regiſter*, who records all tranſactions of the convocation, &c.; three *eſquire beadles*, with gilt ſilver maces; and three *yeoman beadles*, with plain ones, who attend the vice-chancellor in publick, execute his orders for apprehending delinquents, publiſh the courts of convocation, and conduct the preachers to church, and lecturers to ſchool; and a *verger*, who, on ſolemn occaſions, walks with the beadles before the vice-chancellor, and carries a ſilver rod.

COLLEGES

COLLEGES AND HALLS. In Oxford there are twenty Colleges and five Halls. Of each ſome ſlight deſcription will be given, premiſing a general character in the quaint language of Fuller.—"Of the colleges," he ſays, "Univerſity is the oldeſt, Pembroke the youngeſt, Chriſt Church the greateſt, Lincoln (by many reputed) the leaſt, Magdalen the neateſt, Wadham the moſt uniform, New College the ſtrongeſt, and Jeſus College (no fault but its unhappineſs) the pooreſt; and if I knew which was the richeſt, I would not tell, ſeeing concealment in this kind is the ſafeſt. New College is more proper for ſouthern, Exeter for weſtern, Queen's for northern, Brazen-noſe for north-weſtern men, St. John's for Londoners, Jeſus for Welſhmen; and at other colleges almoſt indifferently for men of all countries. Merton has been moſt famous for ſchoolmen, Corpus Chriſti (formerly called *Trilingue Collegium*) for linguiſts, Chriſt Church for poets, All Souls for orators, New College for civilians, Brazen-noſe for diſputants, Queen's College for metaphyſicians, Exeter for a late ſeries of regius profeſſors; Magdalen for ancient, St. John's for modern prelates: and all eminent for ſome one kind or other. And if any of theſe colleges were tranſported into foreign parts, it would alter its kind, (or degree at leaſt,) and preſently of a college proceed an univerſity, as equal to moſt, and ſuperior to many, academies beyond the ſea."

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE. The origin of this college is aſcribed to Alfred, who, in 872, erected certain halls in Oxford, near, or on, the ſpot where this college ſtands, and gave the ſtudents ſmall penſions, iſſuing from the exchequer; but theſe halls were ſoon alienated, and the penſions ſuppreſſed about the reign of the Conqueror. The founder of this college appears, therefore, to be William, archdeacon of Durham, who, in 1219, purchaſed one of the halls, endowed it with land, and founded ten or more fellowſhips for natives of the county of Durham, which were ſoon reduced to two. Succeeding benefactors improved the revenues and buildings of the ſociety. Of theſe the moſt conſiderable are Walter Skirlaw, biſhop of Durham, who procured lands from Henry IV. and founded three fellowſhips for the dioceſes of York and Durham. Henry Percy, earl of Northumberland, lord of the Honour of Cockermouth, in 1442, added three fellowſhips for the dioceſes of Durham, York, and Carliſle, with a preference to natives of the county of Northumberland; and Sir Simon Benet eſtabliſhed four fellowſhips and four ſcholarſhips, to which all perſons born in the province of Canterbury, are eligible. This college is *ſituate* on the ſouth ſide of the High-ſtreet, Oxford, where its front extends more than 260 feet in length. It has two gate-ways, with

with a tower over each, at equal diſtances from the extremities of the building. That on the weſt leads into the old court, a handſome Gothic quadrangle, 100 feet ſquare; and above the gateway are two ſtatues; one on the outſide of Queen Anne, another within of James II. Above the other gateway, on the outſide, is a ſtatue of Queen Mary, daughter of James II., and another within of Dr. John Radcliffe. This entrance leads into a ſmaller court of three ſides, each about 80 feet in length, open to a garden on the ſouth. The eaſt and part of the north ſide, are occupied by the lodgings of the maſter. On the ſouth ſide of the weſtern quadrangle ſtand the chapel and hall. That part of the building has lately undergone a conſiderable alteration, by the lengthening of the windows, the addition of butreſſes, battlements, and pinnacles, and the changing of the former clumſy centre into an elegant Gothic bow window and pediment. The *chapel* is adorned with painted windows, and many monuments of eminent men; and the *hall*, which was fitted up ſome years ſince, in the Gothic ſtyle, and lately received conſiderable improvements, is now one of the moſt beautiful rooms in Oxford.

No part of the buildings of this college can boaſt of any antiquity. The preſent ſpacious and uniform ſtructure was begun in 1634, by the Rev. Charles Greenwood, formerly a fellow. The work was carried on by Sir Simon Benet; and, by the aſſiſtance of ſucceeding patrons, the weſtern quadrangle was finiſhed in 1665. Dr. John Radcliffe gave by will 5000*l.* for building the north and eaſt ſides of the other quadrangle, and alſo left his Yorkſhire eſtate in truſt to the ſociety, charged with the payment of 600*l.* to two travelling fellows, ſtudents in medicine, to whom he ordered apartments to be appropriated in that part of the building.

The preſent *ſociety* conſiſts of a maſter, twelve fellows, and ſeventeen ſcholars, with other ſtudents, amounting in the whole to about ſeventy.

Viſitor. The king.

Baliol College. Sir John Baliol, of Bernard Caſtle in Yorkſhire, father of John Baliol, king of Scotland, firſt deſigned the foundation of this college for the education of ſcholars, to whom he gave yearly exhibitions; but, dying before he purchaſed land, he recommended his deſign to his widow Devorguilla, daughter of Alexander III., king of Scotland, who firſt ſettled theſe exhibitions; and, in 1284, purchaſed a tenement for her ſcholars of Baliol, and conveyed it to the maſters and ſcholars of this houſe for ever for their habitation, having obtained a royal charter for that purpoſe. She afterwards added ſeveral new buildings to it, and ſettled lands for the maintenance

of the ſcholars, dedicating her foundation to the honour of the Holy Trinity, the bleſſed Virgin, and St Katherine the martyr; which benefactions were afterwards ratified by her ſon John Baliol, king of Scotland, and Oliver, biſhop of Lincoln, in whoſe dioceſe Oxford then was. The value of the lands and revenues belonging to this college did not exceed 27*l.* 9*s.* 4*d.* per ann. at that time; but the eſtates were ſoon afterward greatly enlarged by the benefactions of others, particularly Sir Philip Somerville and Dr. John Warner, biſhop of Rocheſter, who founded four Scottiſh exhibitions, endowing them with a revenue, which has ſince been augmented by John Snell, Eſq.

Baliol college is ſituated in Broad-ſtreet, and conſiſts chiefly of one court, which is entered through a Gothic gateway. The buildings about this court are ancient, except the eaſt end, which is finiſhed in the manner in which the reſt of that quadrangle may be built.

The *Chapel* ſtands at the north eaſt angle of the great court. The great eaſt window, which is well executed, repreſents the paſſion, reſurrection, and aſcenſion of Chriſt.

The *Hall* is at the weſt end of the ſame court.

In the maſter's lodgings are ſome good rooms, particularly a ſpacious hall, having a well preſerved ancient window to the eaſt.

The *Library* is furniſhed with a large collection of uſeful books, and many ancient manuſcripts. Over the gate of the college are the arms of the Baliol family. Beſides this court, there is an area to the north-weſt, conſiſting of ſeveral detached lodgings for the ſtudents; and an elegant new building, rather reſembling a modern dwelling-houſe, with a beautiful front to the ſtreet, erected at the expence of Mr Fiſher, late fellow of this ſociety, in which are ſeveral handſome apartments.

The *Members* of this ſociety are a maſter, twelve fellows, fourteen ſcholars, and eighteen exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The maſter and fellows elect their viſitor.

Merton College. The ſociety of Merton, conſiſting of a warden and about the ſame number of ſcholars or fellows as at preſent, was firſt placed at Maldon in Surry, (but with a proviſion for the abode and reſidence of the chief part of them in Oxford), in 1264, the 48th year of Henry III., by Walter de Merton, ſome time lord chancellor of England. The inſtrument of endowment, with the ſtatutes under the broad ſeal, the founder's, the biſhop of the dioceſe's, and that of his chapter, are in the college treaſury, and deemed to be the firſt charter of the kind in Europe. The ſtatutes were finally eſtabliſhed under the broad ſeal and his own, in 1274, the ſecond of Edward I. Such was the origin of this ancient ſociety, by theſe charters incorporated,

corporated, and endowed with almoſt all the lands they at this time poſſeſs, and provided with the ſame ſtatutes, by which, without any alteration or addition, they are now governed. Theſe, by the recourſe had to them, were of much uſe to the after-foundations both in Oxford and Cambridge; and, with ſo much prudence was this college founded, that Edward I. recommended it to Hugh de Balſam, biſhop of Ely, as a model for his intended munificence in Cambridge; according to which Peterhouſe was afterwards erected in that univerſity.

There are alſo in this houſe *poſt-maſters*, who are of a diſtinct and different foundation, which took place about an hundred years after the other. The number, and their revenues, have been ſince increaſed by ſeveral benefactors. Beſides the poſt-maſters, there are four other ſcholars of the foundation of Mr. Henry Jackſon, formerly of this college, which commenced in 1753. In the election of a warden, the fellows chooſe three perſons, whom they preſent to their viſitor, who appoints one of them.

Merton College is ſituated eaſt of Corpus Chriſti; from which it is ſeparated by a ſmall grove of elms, and conſiſts of three courts. The largeſt, or inner court, is 110 feet long, and 100 broad, and was erected in 1610; from the ſouth apartments there is a pleaſant proſpect over the meadows. The terrace in the gardens, formed on the city wall, is no leſs well ſituated for a proſpect. The *gardens*, for their pleaſing variety, are generally much reſorted to in ſummer.

The *Chapel*, at the weſt end of the firſt court, is likewiſe the pariſh church of St John Baptiſt de Merton. It is one of the largeſt and beſt proportioned Gothic ſtructures in the univerſity, 100 feet in length and 30 in breadth, and has a very capacious tower and ante-chapel. But, large as it is at preſent, it has been thought, from its whole appearance, and from the form and manner of the arches cloſed up in the wall of the weſt end, on each hand of the great window, to have been built with a view to a farther addition of a nave and ſide aiſles, the preſent building being no more than the choir and croſs-aiſle. Such a deſign was more eaſy to be imagined than executed; and, after all, moſt likely reached no farther than the carrying on the building, as far as it went, in the cathedral manner.

In the *Hall*, to which the aſcent is by a flight of ſteps, is a well imagined picture, by the late Dr. Wall, repreſenting the expulſion of idle monks to make room for the liberal education of youth, deſigned by the founder.

The *Library* is in the ſmall old quadrangle, ſouth of the chapel, and is furniſhed with ſome ancient and modern books, and ſome manuſcripts.

The *members* are, a warden, twenty-four fellows, fourteen poſt-maſters, Mr Jackſon's four ſcholars, two chaplains, and two clerks.

Viſitor. The archbiſhop of Canterbury.

ORIEL COLLEGE. This college was founded by Edward II. on petition of Adam de Brome, his almoner, in 1324, who was the firſt provoſt. Edward III. gave the large meſſuage of *Le Oriel*, ſituated in St John's pariſh, by which name the college was afterwards called, and whence it has been frequently held to be a royal foundation. He likewiſe gave the hoſpital of Saint Bartholomew, near Oxford, with the lands thereunto belonging. Other benefactors were John Frank, maſter of the rolls in the reign of Henry VI., who gave 1000*l.* to purchaſe lands for the maintenance of four fellows; John Carpenter, formerly provoſt, and afterwards biſhop of Worceſter; William Smith, biſhop of Lincoln; and Dr Richard Dudley, ſometime fellow, and afterwards chancellor of the church of Sarum, who gave the manor of Swainſwick in Somerſetſhire for the maintenance of two fellows and ſix exhibitioners; Dr John Tolſon, who was provoſt in 1640, gave 1150*l.* toward the buildings of the quadrangle, beſides other conſiderable donations. Queen Anne annexed a prebend of Rocheſter to the provoſtſhip for ever; Dr. Robinſon, biſhop of London, beſides the new building, gave 2500*l.* to augment the fellowſhips and to found three exhibitions; Dr. Carter not only left money for the erection of the oppoſite wing, but alſo for the purchaſe of livings for the benefit of the provoſt and fellows. The late duke of Beaufort gave 100*l.* per ann. for four exhibitioners.

Oriel College is ſituated between St. Mary's church on the north, Corpus Chriſti College on the ſouth, and Chriſt-Church on the weſt; the entrance is on the weſt. It chiefly conſiſts of one regular, uniform, and well built quadrangle; on the north ſide whereof are the provoſt's lodgings; on the eaſt the hall, and the entrance into the chapel, which runs eaſtward from thence, and on the ſouth and weſt ſides are the chambers of the fellows and other ſtudents.

Oppoſite to the great gate, a large flight of ſteps, having a portico over them, leads to the *hall*, which is a well proportioned room, handſomely wainſcotted, with a Doric entablature, and adorned with portraits.

The *chapel* has that beauty which is derived from a decent ſimplicity.

The *library* is an elegant modern building, in which are placed the late Lord Leigh's library, given to the ſociety.

The *Members* are, a provoſt, eighteen fellows, and thirteen exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The lord chancellor.

EXETER COLLEGE. This college derives its foundation from Walter Stapledon, biſhop of Exeter, lord treaſurer of England, and ſecretary of ſtate to Edward II., who, in 1316, obtained a charter for founding a college where Hertford college now ſtands; but wanting room for the buildings he deſigned, he removed his ſcholars to the preſent houſe, and called it Stapledon Hall, after his own name. He founded a ſociety conſiſting of thirteen, i. e. a rector and twelve fellows; one of whom, the chaplain, to be appointed by the dean and chapter of Exeter, Totneſs, and Barnſtaple, in Devonſhire, and four from the archdeaconry of Cornwall. Among the ſubſequent benefactors was Edmond Stafford, biſhop of Exeter, who obtained leave to alter the name of this houſe, and ſettled two fellowſhips for the dioceſe of Sarum. Sir William Petre, in Elizabeth's time, obtained a new charter and ſtatutes, founded eight fellowſhips for ſuch counties wherever he then had, or his heirs at any time after ſhould have eſtates; which, by this time, comprehends moſt of the counties in England. Charles I. added one fellowſhip for the iſlands of Jerſey and Guernſey; and by Mrs. Shier's benefaction, as completed and ſettled by Dr. Hugh Shortrige, two other fellowſhips were added, confined to the counties of Hertford and Surry; beſides conſiderable augmentations to the revenues of the ſociety. The laſt benefactor was the learned Mr. Joſeph Sandford, of Baliol College, who gave this ſociety his valuable library; for the reception of which, they, in the year 1781, erected a neat modern edifice in a part of their garden near their former library.

Exeter College is ſituated oppoſite Jeſus College; its front is 220 feet long, having in the centre a magnificent gate and tower. The compoſition of each front, (viz. that towards the ſtreet and that towards the quadrangle), is a ruſtic baſement, which forms the gateway; a plinth, whereupon are placed four pilaſters of the Ionic order, ſupporting a ſemi-circular pediment, in the area of which are the founder's arms, on a ſhield adorned with feſtoons, finiſhing with a baluſtrade above all. This, with the beautiful arched roof of the gateway, is juſtly eſteemed an elegant piece of workmanſhip. The building within chiefly conſiſts of a large quadrangle, formed by the hall, the chapel, the rector's lodgings, and the chambers of the fellows and ſcholars, and is regular and uniform.

The *Gardens* are neatly diſpoſed; and, though within the town, have an airy and pleaſant opening to the eaſt, and a ter-

race commanding a view of ſome of the fineſt buildings in the univerſity.

The *Library* is well furniſhed with books in the ſeveral arts and ſciences, and a very valuable collection of claſſics given by Edward Richards Eſq.

The *Members* are, a rector, twenty-five fellows, one ſcholar, who is bible-clerk, and two exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Exeter.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE. Robert Egglesfield, a native of Cumberland, confeſſor of Queen Philippa, and bachelor of divinity in the univerſity of Oxford, having purchaſed ſeveral tenements in the pariſh of Saint Peter in the eaſt, erected there a collegiate hall, probably by the encouragement of Queen Philippa, conſort of Edward III. giving it the name of *Aula Scholarium Reginæ de Oxon*; and, on the 18th of January 1340, obtained the royal charter for incorporating the ſociety of this hall or college; by virtue whereof, he conſtituted a provoſt and twelve fellows, ordering that the provoſt ſhould be choſen out of the fellows and be in holy orders; and that, for the future, the fellows ſhould be elected out of the counties of Cumberland and Weſtmorland. The principal benefactors, beſides the founder, were Edward III. and his queen Philippa; Charles *I.* who gave this college three rectories and three vicarages in Hampſhire; Sir Joſeph Williamſon, knight, ſome time fellow, who re-built part of the college, and left 6000*l.* towards the finiſhing of it, beſides a valuable library of books; Dr. Barlow, biſhop of Lincoln, Dr. William Lancaſter, and Dr. Timothy Halton, provoſts. Some valuable exhibitions have been ſince founded by Lady Margaret Hungerford, Sir Francis Bridgman, Mr. Tylney, Lady Elizabeth Haſtings, and Dr. Holmes. Eight fellowſhips, four ſcholarſhips, and four exhibitions have been eſtabliſhed by the late Mr. Mitchell of Richmond; and this inſtitution is called the New Foundation in Queen's College. Several very liberal donations were received by the ſociety in 1779, for the purpoſe of re-building the weſt wing of the front quadrangle, which had been deſtroyed by fire; and in particular the ſum of 1000 *l.* from her preſent Majeſty, patroneſs of the college.

Queen's College is ſituate on the north ſide of the High-ſtreet, oppoſite Univerſity College. The whole area, on which it is built, is an oblong ſquare of 300 feet in length, and 220 in breadth, which, being divided by the hall and chapel, forms two ſpacious courts.

The *Chapel* is 100 feet long, and 30 broad. In the arched roof is a piece of painting by Sir James Thornhill. The windows are admirably painted.

The

The *Hall* is 60 feet long, and 30 broad, with an arched roof of a ſuitable height.

The *Library* on the weſt ſide of the north court, about 123 feet in length, is a noble building of the Corinthian order, with a ſpacious cloiſter to the eaſt. It has a ſplendid orrery, and is furniſhed with a valuable collection of books and manuſcripts in moſt languages and ſciences. It is alſo ornamented with a caſt, in plaiſter of Paris, of the Florentine boar.

The *Members* in this college are, a provoſt, ſixteen fellows, two chaplains, eight taberdas, (ſo called from *taberda*, a ſhort gown which they formerly wore), ſixteen ſcholars, two clerks, and forty exhibitioners; together with Mr. Michell's eſtabliſhment, and a great number of maſters, bachelors, gentlemen commoners, commoners, and other ſtudents. They have ſome extraordinary cuſtoms. They are called to dinner by the ſound of a trumpet. On Chriſtmas-day a boar's head is uſhered very ſolemnly into the common-hall or refectory, with a celebrated monkiſh ſong; and, on New-year's day, the burſar of the college gives to each member a needle and thread, addreſſing him in theſe terms, *take this and be thrifty*. This practice of diſtributing the needle and thread, *aiguille et fil*, had perhaps, in its origin, ſome alluſion to the name of the founder, Egglesfield.

Viſitor. The archbiſhop of York.

New College. New College was founded by William of Wykeham, a native of Wykeham in Hampſhire, who beſides many temporal honours, attained to the eccleſiaſtical dignity of biſhop of Wincheſter. The foundation ſtone was laid March 5th, 1379, and it was finiſhed on April 14, 1386, when the warden and fellows took poſſeſſion of it. In the year following, St. Mary's College near Wincheſter was begun, and was finiſhed and inhabited in the year 1393, by a warden, ten fellows, three chaplains, three clerks, and ſixteen choriſters, as alſo two maſters, and ſeventy boys, from whom an annual election is held, to ſupply the immediate vacancies, or any which may happen within the enſuing year, at New College. The pious and munificent founder, not only ſaw both his colleges completed, made ample proviſion for the ſupport of each, and gave them a regular and perfect body of ſtatutes, but having ſurvived many years, he enlarged his will with coſtly legacies of jewels, plate, money, and books, to be diſtributed throughout the ſeveral dioceſes in which he was preferred, or had temporal poſſeſſions at his deceaſe. He died Sept. 27, 1404, when he was 80 years of age. Wykeham's pious example has incited many eminent perſons, chiefly ſuch as had been fellows of this ſociety, to be conſiderable benefactors to his munificent foundation.

New College is ſituated eaſt of the ſchools and the theatre, and and is ſeparated from Queen's College only by a narrow lane. It is dedicated to St. Mary Winton, and has been called New College from its firſt foundation, being at that time higly regarded for its extent and grandeur. The entrance is by a portal, leading into the firſt court, which is a quadrangle of about 168 feet long, and 129 broad. This court, as built at the foundation of the college, was low, with narrow arched tranſom windows, in the faſhion of the times; but ſoon after the reſtoration, another ſtory was added over the old building, and the windows altered to their preſent form.

The *Chapel* is by much the grandeſt in the Univerſity. The ante-chapel is ſupported by two beautiful ſtaff moulded pillars. This part is upwards of 80 feet long, and 36 broad. The painted windows in the ante-chapel are extremely ſuperb, and juſtly conſidered as maſterly productions. The choir is 100 feet long, 35 broad, and 65 high. The altar piece in the inner chapel is alſo much admired, and there are many other excellent pictures. Cathedral ſervice is performed twice every day, at eight and ſix, and the univerſity ſermon is preached here on Lady-day and Trinity Sunday. Adjoining to the chapel are the cloiſters, which incloſe an area of an hundred and thirty feet in length, and eighty-five in breadth, and which are well worth the attention of the antiquary. On the north ſide of the cloiſters is a tower with a peal of ten bells.

The *Hall* is at the north eaſt corner of the quadrangle. It is handſomely wainſcotted, and adorned with the portraits of the founder, and ſeveral other perſons, and a beautiful Adoration of the Shepherds by Anibal Caracci.

The *Library*, ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the quadrangle, conſiſts of two elegant rooms, one over the other, 70 feet long, and 22 broad; both of them well furniſhed with books, and containing ſome valuable manuſcripts.

The *Garden* is well laid out, and includes a bowling green and pavilion.

The *Members* of New College are, the warden, ſeventy fellows, ten chaplains, three clerks, one ſexton, ſixteen choriſters; together with ſeveral gentlemen commoners.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Wincheſter.

Lincoln College. This college was firſt founded by Richard Flemming, who was born of a good family in Yorkſhire, made biſhop of Lincoln by Henry V., and died in 1431. He obtained the charter of incorporation in the ſixth year of Henry VI.; and in 1429 eſtabliſhed a college, conſiſting of a rector and ſeven fellows, to whom he appropriated ſtipends. In 1478, Thomas Scott, alias Rotherham, then biſhop of Lincoln, conſidering the imperfect

imperfect ſtate of this foundation, obtained a new charter of Edward IV. by virtue whereof he added five other fellowſhips to the ſeven before founded, annexed to the college two rectories, and gave them a body of ſtatutes, in which he limits the choice of the fellows to the dioceſes of Lincoln and York, all except one, whom he would have to be of the dioceſe of Wells. But a greater benefactor was the Right Honourable Nathaniel Lord Crewe, biſhop of Durham, who being preſent in the year 1717, after contributing liberally to the buildings which were then carrying on at Chriſt Church, Queen's, Worceſter, and All Souls Colleges, and to the finiſhing of All Saints Church, ſettled by way of rent-charge, free from all deductions whatſoever, iſſuing out of his manors in Northumberland and Durham, twelve exhibitions of 20*l.* per annum each, for commoners of this college, whom he would have to be the ſons of gentlemen; and made conſiderable augmentation to the annual ſtipends of the rector, fellows, ſcholars, bible clerk, and the chaplains of the four appropriated churches. The laſt benefactor was the late Dr. Hutchins, who had been many years rector, and who augmented the incomes of the ſcholars and exhibitioners.

Lincoln College is ſituated between All Saints Church and Exeter College; and conſiſts of two courts.

The *Hall* is a handſome edifice, about forty feet long, 25 broad, and of a proportionable height.

The *Library* is a very neat room in the north ſide of the outer court, over the common room. It has been new fitted up, ſaſhed, and wainſcotted, at the expence of Sir Nathaniel Lloyd, Knt. ſometime commoner of this College, and afterwards fellow of All Souls. It is well furniſhed with books, and there are in it ſome ancient and valuable manuſcripts.

The *Chapel* is ſituated on the ſouth ſide of the inner court. It has a ſcreen of cedar, finely carved, which is mentioned by Dr. Plott as a great curioſity. The windows are entirely of painted glaſs, of which there is a large one over the altar, and four ſmaller on each ſide. In thoſe of the ſouth ſide are the figures of the twelve apoſtles, three in each window, as large as life. Over againſt theſe, are the figures of twelve of the prophets. The eaſt window, which is over the altar, contains the types and antitypes of our Saviour. The ceiling, which is of cedar, is embelliſhed with the arms of the founders and the principal benefactors; intermixed with cherubim, palm branches, feſtoons, &c. beautifully painted and gilt. The chapel was built in 1630, by Dr. John Williams, at that time biſhop of Lincoln, and afterwards archbiſhop of York.

The *Members* are, a rector, twelve fellows, and twelve exhibitioners.

Viſitor.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Lincoln.

ALL SOULS COLLEGE. The founder of this college was Dr. Henry Chicheley, a native of Higham Ferrers in Northamptonſhire; who was arch-deacon of Sarum, and afterwards chancellor of the ſame church; employed by Henry IV. on ſeveral embaſſies and advanced firſt to the biſhoprick of St. David's, and afterwards to the ſee of Canterbury. He laid the foundation of All Souls College in 1437: the charter of incorporation is dated May 20, 16 Henry VI. By the ſtatutes he gave this college, he appointed forty fellows, whereof twenty four were directed to ſtudy divinity and philoſophy, and the other ſixteen the civil and the canon law. He procured from Henry VI. a grant of the lands and revenues of ſeveral diſſolved priories to endow his college, and in his lifetime erected the chapel and all the reſt of the original buildings, which coſt him 4545*l.* and at his death gave to the ſociety the annual ſums of 134*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* and 100 marks. The moſt conſiderable benefactors have been, Colonel Chriſtopher Codrington, governor of the Leeward Iſlands, and fellow of All Souls; George Clarke, LL.D.; the duke of Wharton, Doddington Greville, Eſq. Lieutenant General Stewart, and Sir Nathaniel Lloyd, who, at the time he was fellow of this college, was head of a college at Cambridge. Colonel Codrington bequeathed 6000*l.* for building the library, his own valuable collection of books, and 4000*l.* more to purchaſe new ones; and Dr. Clarke gave his beautiful houſe for the uſe of the wardens ſucceſſively of the college. He alſo much augmented the chaplainſhips.

All Soul's College conſiſts chiefly of two courts. The old court, which is about 124 feet in length, and 72 in breadth, having the High-ſtreet on the ſouth, and the chapel at the north end of it. In this old quadrangle is a dial, contrived by Sir Chriſtopher Wren, then fellow of the college, which by the help of two half rays, and one whole one for every hour, ſhews to a minute what is the time, the minutes being marked on the ſides of the rays, fifteen on each ſide, and divided in five by a different character. The grand court, ſituated behind the former, is a ſpacious and beautiful quadrangle, in length from north to ſouth about 172 feet, and in breadth 155.

The *Chapel* is 70 feet long and 30 broad; the ante-chapel of the ſame dimenſions: they are ornamented with valuable ſculptures and pictures.

The new *Library* is a magnificent gallery, 200 feet long, and 30 broad, and about 40 feet high, finiſhed at a great expence. The outſide is Gothic, in conformity with the reſt of the quadrangle. The inſide conſiſts of two grand ranges of book-caſes, one above the other, ſupported by pilaſters of the Doric and Ionic orders.

orders. Over the book-cafes are placed interchangeably vafes, and buſts of many eminent perſons, formerly fellows of the ſociety.

The *Hall* is an elegant room, in which are many portraits and ſome buſts and ſtatues. The college buttery, which was built with the hall, is divided by a paſſage; it is of an oval form, with an arched ſtone roof of very curious work.

The *Members* of this college are, a warden, forty-fellows, two chaplains, and ſix clerks and choriſters.

A peculiar cuſtom is the celebrating the mallard night, every year on the 14th of January, in remembrance of an exceſſive large mallard or drake, ſuppoſed to have long ranged in a drain or ſewer, where it was found at the digging for the foundation of the college. An authentic account of this event has been retrieved, and publiſhed from a manuſcript of Thomas Walſingham, the hiſtorian, and monk of St. Alban's. It is the cauſe of much mirth, for on the day, and in remembrance of the mallard, is always ſung a merry old ſong ſet to ancient muſic.

Viſitor. The archbiſhop of Canterbury.

MAGDALEN COLLEGE. This college was founded by William Patten, called William of Waynflete from a village of that name in Lincolnſhire, where he was born. He was elected maſter of Wincheſter ſchool, afterward preferred to be provoſt of Eton college by Henry VI. who advanced him to the biſhopriek of Wincheſter in 1447, and in 1449, he was conſtituted Lord High Chancellor of England. In 1456, he obtained leave of Henry VI. to convert St. John's hoſpital into a college.

Magdalen College is ſituated near the river Cherwell, at the eaſt end of the city.

The *Chapel* is in all reſpects worthy of attention; the entrance is adorned with ſeveral ſtatues; the roof is moſt elegantly deſigned; the windows are very finely painted; the altar piece has many admirers; and the altar is conſidered as an admirable ſpecimen of deſign and workmanſhip. Cathedral ſervice is performed here every day at ten, and between three and four, except Sundays and holidays, when the morning prayers begin at eight, on account of the univerſity ſermon.

On the right from the chapel is the *Cloiſter*, which remains in its primitive ſtate; the whole making a moſt venerable appearance. The interior part is ornamented with hieroglyphics, which a celebrated antiquary has termed *whimſical figures which ſerve to amuſe the vulgar, but are only the licentious inventions of the maſon*, but of which the following rational account is tranſlated from a Latin manuſcript in the library of the college.

" Beginning from the ſouth-weſt corner, the two firſt figures " we meet with are the *lion* and the *pelican*. The former of " theſe is the emblem of *courage* and *vigilance*; the latter of

" *parental*

" *parental tenderneſs* and *affection*. Both of them together ex-
" preſs to us the complete character of a good governor of a
" college. Accordingly they are placed under the window of
" thoſe lodgings which originally belonged to the preſident, as
" the inſtructions they convey ought particularly to regulate
" his conduct.

" Going on to the right hand, on the other ſide of the gate-
" way, are four figures, *viz.* the *ſchoolmaſter*, the *lawyer*, the
" *phyſician*, and the *divine*. Theſe are ranged along the out-
" ſide of the library, and repreſent the duties and buſineſs of
" the ſtudents of the houſe. By means of learning in general,
" they are to be introduced to one of the three learned profeſ-
" ſions; or elſe, as hinted to us by the figure with *cap* and *bells*
" in the corner, they muſt turn out *fools* in the end.

" We come now to the north ſide of the quadrangle; and
" here the three firſt figures repreſent the hiſtory of *David*, his
" conqueſt over the *lion* and *Goliath*; from whence we are taught
" not to be diſcouraged at any difficulties that may ſtand in
" our way, as the *vigour of youth* will eaſily enable us to ſur-
" mount them. The next figure to theſe is that of the
" *hippopotamus*, or *river horſe*, carrying his young one upon
" his ſhoulders. This is the emblem of a good tutor, or fellow
" of a college, who is ſet to watch over the youth of the ſociety,
" and by whoſe prudence they are to be led through the dangers
" of their firſt entrance into the world. The figure immediate-
" ly following repreſents *ſobriety* or *temperance*, that moſt ne-
" ceſſary virtue of a collegiate life. The whole remaining
" train of figures are the vices we are inſtructed to avoid. Thoſe
" next to temperance, are the oppoſite vices of *gluttony* and
" *drunkenneſs*. Then follow the *lucanthropos*, the *hyæna*, and
" *panther*, repreſenting *violence*, *fraud*, and *treachery*; the *griffin*,
" repreſenting *covetouſneſs*, and the next figure, *anger*, or *moroſe-*
" *neſs*. The *dog*, the *dragon*, the *deer*, *flattery*, *envy*, and *timidity*;
" and the three laſt, the *mantichora*, the *boxers*, and the *lamia*,
" *pride*, *contention*, and *luſt*;

" We have here therefore, a complete and inſtructive leſſon for
" the uſe of a ſociety dedicated to the advancement of religion
" and learning; and, on this plan, we may ſuppoſe the founder
" of *Magdalen* thus ſpeaking, by means of theſe figures, to the
" ſtudents of his college:

" It is your duty, who live under the care of a preſident
" whoſe *vigilance* and *parental tenderneſs* are the proper qualifica-
" tions to ſupport the government of my houſe, attentively to
" purſue your ſtudies in your *ſeveral profeſſions*; and ſo avoid
" the follies of an idle, unlettered, and diſſipated courſe of life.
" You may poſſibly meet with many *difficulties* at your ſetting

" out

" out in this road; but theſe every *ſtripling* will be able to over-
" come by *courage* and *perſeverance*. And remember when
" you are advanced beyond theſe difficulties, that it is your
" duty to lend your aſſiſtance to thoſe who come after you, and
" whoſe education is committed to your care. You are to be
" an example to them of *ſobriety* and *temperance*; ſo ſhall you
" guard them from falling into the ſnares of *exceſs* and *debauchery*.
" You ſhall teach them, that the vices with which the world
" abounds, *cruelty*, *fraud*, *avarice*, *anger*, and *envy*, as well as the
" more ſupple ones of abject *flattery* and *cowardice*, are not to be
" countenanced within theſe hallowed retirements. And let it
" be your endeavour to avoid *pride* and *contention*, the parents
" of *faction*, and in your ſituation, the worſt and moſt unna-
" tural of all factions, the *faction of a cloiſter*. And, laſtly, you
" will complete the *collegiate character*, if you crown all your
" other acquirements with the unſpotted *purity* and *chaſtity* of
" your lives and converſation."

An unparalleled beauty belonging to this college is *the grove*, which ſeems perfectly adapted to indulge contemplation; being a pleaſant kind of ſolitude, well planted with trees. It has in it about forty head of deer. Beſides the walks which are in the grove, there is a very delightful and much frequented one round a meadow ſurrounded by branches of the Cherwell, called the Water Walk, which yields a great variety, ſome parts of it running in ſtraight lines with the trees regularly cut; others winding, and the trees growing little otherwiſe than as nature directs. On the weſt ſide a beautiful opening is made into the grove, by removing the embattled wall in that part.

The *Tower*, which is ſo conſpicuous from every part of the neighbourhood, and elegant in its ſtructure, was built ſometime after the foundation of the college, and has been ſuppoſed to have been erected under the inſpection of cardinal Wolſey, who was a member of this ſociety: but this preſumption reſts only on tradition. It was begun in 1492, and completed ſome years after. It contains a very muſical peal of ten bells.

The *Members* of this college are, a preſident, forty fellows, thirty demies, a divinity lecturer, ſchoolmaſter, and uſher, four chaplains, an organiſt, eight clerks, and ſixteen choriſters.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Wincheſter.

Brazen Nose College. The moſt probable account of the uncommon name of this college ſeems to be as follows The founders purchaſed from Univerſity College, for the ſite of their intended building, two ancient ſeats of learning, Brazen-noſe and Little Univerſity Halls; the former of which, as well as one of the ſame name at Stamford, received its title from the circumſtance of having a noſe of braſs affixed to the gate.

It

It was with a view to this that the founders ordered their new ſeminary to be called the King's Hall and College of Brazen-noſe; and a ſimilar appendage is ſtill conſpicuous over the portal.

This college forms the weſt ſide of the Radcliffe Square, It was founded in 1509, by the joint benefaction of William Smith, biſhop of Lincoln, and Sir Richard Sutton, knight, of Preſbury in Cheſhire.

The *Refectory* is handſome and ſpacious, and adorned with ſome good portraits and paintings on glaſs of the two founders. It ſtands on the ſouth ſide of the firſt quadrangle; in the centre of which is a ſtatue of Cain and Abel.

The *Library* and *Chapel* are not diſtinguiſhed by any thing very remarkable.

The foundation of this college is for a principal, twenty fellows, thirty-two ſcholars, and twelve exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Lincoln.

CORPUS CHRISTI COLLEGE. This College was founded in 1516, by Dr. Richard Fox, a native of Ropeſley, near Grantham in Lincolnſhire, who was ſucceſſively biſhop of the ſees of Exeter, Bath and Wells, Durham, and Wincheſter, and was likewiſe Lord Privy Seal to Henry VII. and Henry VIII. He firſt intended it only as a ſeminary for the monks of the priory or cathedral church of St. Swithin at Wincheſter, and obtained a charter for that end; but altered his mind by the perſuaſion of Hugh Oldham, biſhop of Exeter, who engaged to be a benefactor to the houſe, on condition that he would convert it into a college for the uſe of ſecular ſtudents, after the manner of other colleges in the univerſity. Whereupon biſhop Fox cauſed the firſt charter to be cancelled, and obtained another, whereby he was permitted to found a college, for the ſtudy of divinity, philoſophy, and other liberal arts. The ſtatutes for the government of this ſociety ordain, that the fellows ſhould be elected out of the ſcholars, who are to be choſen from the counties or dioceſes following, viz. two, Surry; three, Hampſhire; one, Durham; two, Bath and Wells; two, Exeter; two county of Lincoln; two, Glouceſterſhire; one, Wiltſhire; (or in defect of candidate) the dioceſe of Sarum; one, county of Bedford; two, county of Kent; one, county of Oxford; one, Lancaſhire. Among the benefactors was Hugh Oldham, chaplain to Margaret counteſs of Richmond, and afterward biſhop of Exeter, who gave 6000 marks towards erecting the college, beſides ſeveral eſtates for the endowment of it. William Froſt, ſteward to the founder; John Claymond, the firſt preſident of this college; and Robert Morwent, ſecond preſident, gave to the college ſeveral portions of lands. Arthur Parſons, M. D. ſometime fellow, gave 3000*l.* towards purchaſing advowſons.

Corpus

Corpus Chriſti College ſtands between Chriſt Church on the weſt, Merton College on the eaſt, and Oriel College on the north. It conſiſts of one quadrangle, built in the founder's time, but not embattled within till about the latter end of the reign of James I. In length it is 101 feet by 80 wide. Towards Chriſt Church walk, an elegant modern building, 119 feet in front, with an arcade adjoining, was erected in 1706, at the ſole expence of Dr. Turner, preſident. On the eaſt ſide toward Merton Grove, a handſome ſtructure was built in 1737, for the reſidence of gentlemen commoners, whoſe number the founder has confined to ſix. And ſoon after the north and weſt fronts of the firſt court were rebuilt, chiefly at the expence of ſome members of the ſociety.

By ſimilar means *the Hall* was embelliſhed with a handſome oak wainſcot in 1700: it is 50 feet long, and twenty-five broad, and of a proportionable height, with beautiful Gothic rafters.

The *Chapel* is 70 feet in length, and 25 in breadth. In 1676, it was adorned with a floor of black and white marble, new ſtalls, a ſcreen of cedar wood, and a roof wainſcotted and gilt.

The *Library* is well furniſhed with books, particularly a large collection of tracts from the Reformation to the revolution; about 300 MSS. a curious one of Suidas, which ſeems to have once belonged to William Grocyn, that celebrated ſcholar and teacher of the Greek language in this univerſity, toward the cloſe of the 15th century, as his name is written on the cover of both volumes; the MS. collections of the antiquaries Bryan, Twine, and Fulman; an Engliſh bible ſuppoſed to be older than Wickliffe's; a parchment roll containing the pedigree of the royal family, and the ſeveral branches of it, from Alfred to Edward VI. with their arms blazoned, ſigned by the king at arms; and ſeveral other curioſities, particularly an ancient MS. hiſtory of the bible in French, finely decorated with curious painting, given by general Oglethorpe, who was a member of this college; and alſo a very valuable collection of the earlieſt editions of the claſſics, particularly of the Aldine, many of which belonged to the founder, and are well preſerved. Among the moſt curious are Cicero de Officiis, on vellum, 1466; the Florentine Anthologia, Euripides, Appollonius Rhodius in capital letters; and a vellum copy of the ſplendid edition of Ariſtotle and Theophraſtus, from the preſs of Aldus. They ſhew here alſo the genuine crozier of the founder, a piece of curious workmanſhip little impaired by time.

The *Members* are, a preſident, twenty fellows, two chaplains,

twenty ſcholars, four exhibitioners, and ſix gentlemen commoners.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Wincheſter.

CHRIST CHURCH. This college was founded by cardinal Wolſey, upon the place where formerly ſtood the priory of St. Frideswide, which, and ſeveral other religious foundations, were diſſolved, in order to endow the college intended by the cardinal. The deſign was far from being completed at the time of Wolſey's diſgrace, little more being built than the eaſt, ſouth, and part of the weſt ſides of the great quadrangle, and the kitchen. And as to the foundation itſelf, whatever it might be at that time, it is certain it was afterwards leſſened, and the form of it altered two or three times by the king. The diſgrace of the cardinal happened in 1529, when the king ſeized upon this college, as well as his other eſtates. In 1532, at the inſtance of lord Cromwell, the king new modelled the foundation, and gave it the name of *King-Henry the Eighth's College*. This was ſuppreſſed in 1545, and in the year following the epiſcopal ſee was removed from Oſeney to this college, and the church of St. Frideſwide conſtituted a cathedral, by the name of Chriſt-church. Since the time of Elizabeth, this college has largely experienced the bounty of ſeveral benefactors, particularly biſhop Fell, who left ten exhibitions of 10*l.* per ann. to commoners, to be held for ten years from the time they were nominated to them. The 101ſt ſtudentſhip was added by William Thurſton, Eſq. 1663. Several exhibitions were given by lady Holford, for ſcholars educated at the Charter-houſe, and more by other benefactors.

The college conſiſts of four courts or ſquares, *viz.* 1. The Great Quadrangle; 2. Peckwater-ſquare; 3. Canterbury-court; 4. The Chaplain's-court; and ſome other buildings.

The ſtately weſt front of the great quadrangle is a magnificent Gothic building, 382 feet in length, terminated at each end with two correſponding turrets. The great gate is in the middle of this front, and over it a beautiful tower enriched with Gothic ornaments, deſigned by Sir Chriſtopher Wren, erected by Dr. Fell, and perfectly correſponding to the reſt of the buildings. In this tower hangs the great bell called *Tom* (the weight of which is eight tons and a half), on the ſound of which the ſcholars of the univerſity are to retire to their reſpective colleges. The great quadrangle is 264, by 261 feet in the clear. The ſouth-eaſt and part of the weſt ſides, with the magnificent *kitchen* to the ſouth of the hall, were erected by the cardinal. The eaſt and north ſides of this quadrangle are taken up with the dean's and four of the canons' lodgings.

The

The *Hall* is by far the moſt magnificent room of the kind in Oxford, and one of the largeſt in the kingdom. The roof is framed of timber, curiouſly wrought, and ſo contrived as to produce a very grand and noble effect. There are neat 300 compartments in the cornice, which are embelliſhed with as many coats of arms carved and blazoned in their proper colours. At the upper end of the hall is an aſcent of three ſteps, which run through the whole breadth; near which is a beautiful Gothic window in a receſs. This ſuperb room is beautified, and improved, by completing and painting the wainſcoat and roof, and the addition of a great number of portraits of eminent perſons, who were educated at the college.

The *Church* of this college, which is the cathedral of the dioceſe, is on the eaſt of the grand quadrangle, a venerable ſtructure, originally the church of Saint Frideſwide's monaſtery. It was finiſhed before the year 1200. The roof of the choir is a beautiful piece of ſtone-work, put up by Cardinal Wolſey, who alſo rebuilt the ſpire. In the tower are ten celebrated bells, brought from Oſeney abbey, as was the great bell called Tom. In this church, choir ſervice is performed every day at ten and five; except on Sundays and holidays, when it is eight in the morning.

Three ſides of Peckwater court are uniform, deſigned by Dr. Aldrich, then dean, as eminent for his ſkill in architecture as for his knowledge in moſt other branches. Each ſide contains fifteen windows in front. The lower ſtory is ruſtic, in which are three entrances. The ſecond ſtory, and the attic above it, are contained in the height of the Ionic order, which reſts upon the ruſtic. Over the five middle windows in each ſide is a beautiful pediment, which projects, ſupported by three quarter columns of the ſame order, as the entablature and baluſtrade of the other parts are by pilaſters.

On the ſouth ſide of this court is a magnificent *Library*, 141 feet long, built in the Corinthian order, the pillars of which are four feet in diameter. The wainſcotting, book-caſes, and ſtucco-work, as well on the ſtair-caſe as in the rooms of the library, are very highly finiſhed, particularly the beautiful feſtoons in ſtucco, charged with ſymbolical imagery, ſeverally repreſenting the particular branch of literature contained beneath. There are many buſts, and a collection of good pictures.

Canterbury court, once Canterbury college, is now moſt elegantly rebuilt, from a plan ſuitable to Peckwater, with a ſuperb gate-way, under the direction of Mr. Wyatt, by the munificence of Dr. Robinſon, late primate of Ireland, and other benefactors.

The chaplain's court is ſituated ſouth-eaſt of the grand quadrangle, on the north ſide whereof is a large building of new chambers, the walls of which are formed from the hall or refectory of St. Frideſwide's priory.

The court of the grammar ſchool is ſouth of the great quadrangle, having the hall on the north ſide of it: under part of the hall is the ſpacious common room, in which is an excellent buſt by Ryſbrack, of Dr. Buſby, formerly maſter of Weſtminſter ſchool, and a conſiderable benefactor to the college. Round the room are the pictures of the ſeveral maſters of the ſame ſchool, and other eminent members of the ſociety.

On the ſouth ſide is the new *Anatomical Theatre*, erected and endowed by the late Dr. Lee, phyſician to George II. at the expence of 20,000*l.*, with a proper ſtipend to the lecturer, &c. In it is a fine collection of anatomical preparations and injections.

The *Foundation* conſiſts of a dean, eight canons, 101 ſtudents, part of which are elected annually from Weſtminſter ſchool; and the other vacancies, as they happen, are filled up by the dean and canons; eight chaplains, eight ſinging men, and as many choriſters, a ſchool-maſter, an organiſt, &c.

Viſitor. The King.

TRINITY COLLEGE. This college was founded March 8, 1594, by Sir Thomas Pope, knight, of Tittlehanger in Hertfordſhire, privy counſellor to Queen Mary, and a ſingular friend to Sir Thomas More, for the maintenance and education of a preſident, twelve fellows, and twelve ſcholars. The founder directs, that the ſcholars, who ſucceed to the fellowſhips, ſhall be choſen from his manors: but, if no candidates appear under ſuch qualifications on the day of election, that they ſhall be ſupplied from any county in England. He alſo appoints, that no more than two natives of the ſame county ſhall be fellows of his college at the ſame time, Oxfordſhire excepted, from which county five are admitted. The principal, and almoſt only benefactor, was Dr. Ralph Bathurſt, formerly preſident, who expended 1900*l.* in rebuilding the chapel.

This college ſtands oppoſite the Turl. A ſpacious avenue, fenced from the ſtreet by a handſome iron paliſade, with folding gates, leads to the front of the college, which conſiſts of the chapel and the gateway, with its tower.

In the firſt court are the chapel, hall, preſident's lodgings, and library.

The great elegance of the *Chapel* reſults from an aſſemblage of highly finiſhed ornaments. The carving of the ſcreen and altar-piece, which are of cedar, is performed with exquiſite taſte, and the chapel in all parts is beautifully decorated.

The

The *Hall* is ſpacious and well proportioned, and adorned with a portrait of the founder. Over the chimney-piece are the arms of Queen Mary and King Philip, a rare inſtance of the arms of England and Spain being quartered together.

In the *Library* windows are ſeveral compartments of fine old painted glaſs, much injured in former times.

The ſecond court, planned by Sir Chriſtopher Wren, was one of the firſt pieces of modern architecture which appeared in the univerſity. It conſiſts of three ſides. The opening to the gardens on the eaſt has an agreeable effect.

The *Gardens* are extenſive, and laid out in two diviſions.

The *College* conſiſts of a preſident, twelve fellows, and twelve ſcholars.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Wincheſter.

St. John's College. This college was founded by Sir Thomas White, alderman and merchant-tailor, of London, who afterwards, anno 1557, endowed it with ſeveral conſiderable manors, and at his death bequeathed the ſum of 3000 *l.* to purchaſe lands to increaſe its revenues. He originally deſigned Merchant Tailors' School in London as the only ſeminary for this college; but being of a more public ſpirit than to confine himſelf to any one place, he allowed two fellowſhips to the city of Coventry, two to Briſtol, two to the town of Reading, and one to Tunbridge, together with ſix to the kin of the founder. The moſt conſiderable benefactors ſince have been Sir William Paddy, who founded and endowed the choir, and built that ſide of the new quadrangle, of which the library is a part; Archbiſhop Laud, who at the expence of about 5000 *l.* (excluſive of 400 *l.* for the ſtatues of the king and queen) added the other three ſides; Archbiſhop Juxon, who gave 7000 *l.* to this college; Dr. Gibbons who bequeathed the perpetual advowſon of the living of Baynton in Yorkſhire, and 1000 *l.* to buy books; Dr. Holmes, formerly preſident, with his lady, who gave 15,000 *l.* to augment the ſalaries of the officers, and other uſes; and Dr. Rawlinſon, who bequeathed the reverſion of an eſtate in fee farm rents.

St. John's College is ſituated north of Baliol and Trinity Colleges, having a terrace with a row of lofty elms before it. The buildings chiefly conſiſt of two large quadrangles. The entrance to the firſt is by a handſome old gateway with a tower over it. It is formed by the hall and chapel on the north, the preſident's lodgings on the eaſt, and the chambers of the fellows, ſcholars, and other ſtudents on the ſouth and weſt ſides.

The *Hall* is elegant, being well proportioned, and handſomely wainſcotted, with a beautiful arched roof, a ſereen of Portland ſtone, and a grand variegated marble chimney-piece, containing

a picture of St. John the Baptiſt, by Guarini. It is likewiſe adorned with many other pictures.

The *Chapel*, which is adjoining to the hall, is in all reſpects neat and commodious. It is divided from the ante-chapel by a new and elegant ſcreen, over which has been erected a very complete new organ. It has now an elegance which reſults from ſeveral high finiſhed, yet ſimple ornaments. In particular the ſtand on which the Bible is placed is adorned with maſterly carving. The altar is of the Corinthian order, and very properly adapted. Over the communion table is a fine piece of tapeſtry, repreſenting out Saviour with the two diſciples at Emmaus, copied from a painting of Titian. In this chapel cathedral ſervice is performed twice a day, at eight and ſix. In the *Poſt-chapel*, the roof of which is of carved ſtone and very elegant, are three monuments of deceaſed preſidents.

Through a paſſage on the eaſt ſide of the firſt quadrangle is the entrance to the ſecond; on the eaſt and weſt ſides whereof are handſome piazzas in the Grecian taſte, each column conſiſting of one ſingle bluiſh ſtone, dug from a part of the college eſtate, near Fifield in Berkſhire. In the centre of each piazza is a magnificent gateway, conſiſting principally of two orders. 1. The Doric, which forms the gateway itſelf, agreeable to that of the piazzas. 2. The Ionic, which ſupports a ſemicircular pediment. Between four of theſe columns, viz. two on each ſide, in a niche, is a braſs ſtatue; that on the eaſt of Charles I. and that on the weſt of his Queen, caſt by Fanelli of Florence. That neither of the Greek orders might be wanting, the third, viz. the Corinthian, is very artfully introduced in the conſtruction of the niche. The whole is richly embelliſhed, and is the deſign of Inigo Jones.

The *Library* includes the upper ſtory of the ſouth and eaſt ſides. The ſouth ſide is well ſtored with printed books in all faculties, regularly diſpoſed: the eaſt with a moſt valuable collection of manuſcripts, in which the bookcaſes adhering to the ſides form a ſpacious gallery. Here are ſome valuable curioſities conſiſting in pictures and books.

The *Gardens* are very extenſive, and laid out with all thoſe graces which ariſe from a ſucceſſion of beauties ſo diſpoſed as to ſtrike gradually and unexpectedly. The celebrated Mr. Browne, by removing a few embarraſſing overgrown cheſnut trees, has ſo changed the aſpect of this garden, that few can at preſent vie with it.

The *Members* are, a preſident, fifty fellows, two chaplains, an organiſt, five ſinging-men, ſix choriſters, and two ſextons.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Wincheſter.

JESUS COLLEGE. This college was founded by Queen Elizabeth,

zabeth, by charter bearing date the 27th June 1571, for a principal, eight fellows, and eight ſcholars. The queen, at the requeſt of Hugh Price, LL.D. a native of Brecknock, and treaſurer of the church of St. David's, granted her royal charter of foundation, and a certain religious houſe, or cell, called Whitehall (which before the diſſolution of monaſteries belonged to the priory of St. Frideſwide) for the ſite of the college, together with ſuch timber and other materials as ſhould be wanting for the building of it, out of her foreſts of Shotover and Stowe. The firſt endowment of this college was by Dr. Hugh Price, above mentioned, who, by deed bearing date the laſt day of the ſaid month of June 1571, conveyed to the college, by the ſtyle and title of *The Principal, Fellows, and Scholars, of Jeſus College, within the City and Univerſity of Oxford, of Queen Elizabeth's foundation*, certain lands, meſſuages and tenements in the county of Brecknock, in value about 160 *l. per ann.* for the maintenance and ſupport of a principal, eight fellows, and eight ſcholars, being the number limited in the original charter of foundation; though by charters ſince granted at different times, and the munificence of ſubſequent benefactors, the number of fellows and ſcholars is more than doubled. The principal benefactors after Dr. Hugh Price, who may in ſome meaſure be called the founder of this originally little ſociety, were, Sir Eubule Thelwal, knt. principal of the college, who, beſide his contributions toward the buildings carried on under his direction, increaſed the number of feilows from eight to ſixteen; Dr. Francis Manſel, who was thrice principal; Sir Leoline Jenkins; Charles I.; Dr. Griffith Lloyd, and many others.

In point of architecture, Jeſus college contains nothing peculiarly deſerving notice.

The *Society* is compoſed of a principal, nineteen fellows, and eighteen ſcholars, beſides a conſiderable number of exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The earl of Pembroke.

WADHAM COLLEGE. This college was deſigned by Nicholas Wadham, eſq., and built in purſuance of his will, by Dorothy, his widow, in 1613, who appointed a warden, fifteen fellows, fifteen ſcholars, two chaplains, and two clerks; the warden to be a native of Great Britain. The fellows, after having completed eighteen years from their regency, to reſign their fellowſhips. The ſcholars, out of whom the fellows are to be choſen, to be taken three out of Somerſetſhire, and three out of Eſſex; the reſt out of any county of Great Britain. The moſt conſiderable benefactor, ſince the founder, was John Goodridge, M. A. ſome time fellow of this college, who gave all his eſtate at Walthamſtow in Eſſex to the ſociety. Dr.

Hody added ten exhibitions, four for ſtudents in Hebrew, and ſix for Greek, 10*l.* a year each. Lord Wyndham 2000*l.* of which 1,500*l.* to increaſe the warden's ſalary, and 500*l.* to beautify and repair the college. Biſhop Liſle, the late warden, gave two exhibitions of 10*l. per annum* each.

Wadham college is ſituated north of the public ſchools and printing houſe; its front facing the gardens of Trinity college. It conſiſts chiefly of one large quadrangle, about 130 feet ſquare.

The *Hall* is a ſpacious Gothic room, at the ſouth-eaſt angle of the great court; and the *Library* ſtands on the eaſt of the hall.

The *Chapel* is a ſpacious edifice, at the north-eaſt angle of the ſame court, and has that venerable appearance ſo remarkable in the chapels at New college, and Magdalen, having the ante-chapel at right angles with the choir. What is moſt admired here is a very large window at the eaſt end, of the paſſion of our Saviour, by Van Ling, wherein is a great variety of figures admirably done. The windows on the ſides ſeem to be of the ſame workmanſhip; but the greateſt curioſity in this chapel is the painted cloth, if it may be ſo called, at the lower part of the altar. It is the only work of its kind at preſent in Oxford. The cloth, which is of an aſh colour, is the medium; the lines and ſhades are done with a brown crayon, and the lights with a white one; which being afterwards preſſed with hot irons, cauſing the damp of the cloth to incorporate with the colours, has ſo fixed them, as to be rendered proof againſt a bruſh when uſed to cleanſe it from duſt; it was performed by Iſaac Fuller, who painted the altar piece at Magdalen college, and it is generally allowed to be a maſterly drawing. The eaſt repreſents the Lord's ſupper; the north, Abraham and Melchiſedeck; and the ſouth, the children of Iſrael gathering manna.

The *Members* are, the warden, fifteen fellows, two chaplains, fifteen ſcholars, two clerks, and ſixteen exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Bath and Wells.

Pembroke College. This college, formerly Broadgate Hall, was founded in 1620, by Thomas Teſdale of Glympton, eſq., and Richard Whitwick, S. T. B. rector of Iſley, Berks, for a maſter, ten fellows, and ten ſcholars; four of Mr. Teſdale's fellows to be choſen out of his relations, and the reſt to come from Abingdon free-ſchool. As to Mr. Whitwick's benefaction, two of the fellows and two ſcholars to be of his kindred, and the reſt from Abingdon ſchool. King Charles I. granted to this ſociety the perpetual advowſon of St. Aldate's church, and certain lands for the maintenance of one fellow, to be choſen from Guernſey or Jerſey. Archbiſhop Abbot, Juliana Stafford, and Francis Rous,

Rous, were the next benefactors; and Dr. George Morley, biſhop of Wincheſter, founded five ſcholarſhips for the natives of Guernſey and Jerſey. Queen Anne annexed a prebend of Glouceſter to the maſterſhip; Lady Holford gave two exhibitions of 20 *l.* a-year each; Dr. Hall, maſter of this college, and biſhop of Briſtol, built the maſter's lodgings; Sir John Bennet, Lord Oſſulſton, endowed two fellowſhips and ſcholarſhips; Mr. Townſhend gave eight exhibitions to young ſcholars from Glouceſterſhire; and Sir John Philips, Bart. in 1749, founded one fellowſhip and one ſcholarſhip.

The name of the college was derived from the Earl of Pembroke, chancellor of the univerſity at the time it was founded; it is ſituated near Saint Aldate's Church, in a direct line from the grand gate of Chriſt Church, and conſiſts of two ſmall courts. The quadrangle is uniform, having the *hall* at the north-weſt angle, in which are pictures of the founders and ſome benefactors. The *chapel* is a ſmall elegant building, of the Ionic order, with a beautiful altar-piece. In the *garden*, which is weſt of the chapel, is a pleaſant common room and a terrace walk.

The *members* are, a maſter, fourteen fellows, thirty ſcholars, and exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The chancellor of the univerſity.

Worcester College. This houſe was formerly called Glouceſter College, being a ſeminary for educating the novices of Glouceſter monaſtery. It was founded in 1283 by John Giffard, baron of Brimsfield. When ſuppreſſed at the reformation, it was converted into a palace for the biſhop of Oxford, but was ſoon after erected into an academical hall, by Sir Thomas White, the founder of Saint John's college; in which ſtate it continued till it received a charter of incorporation and endowment from Sir Thomas Cookes, who, in 1714, obtained a foundation for a provoſt, ſix fellows, and ſix ſcholars. Dr. Finney further endowed it with two fellowſhips and two ſcholarſhips for ſtudents from Staffordſhire. Dr. Clarke founded ſix fellowſhips and three ſcholarſhips, with a preference to clergymen's ſons; and Mrs. Eton, daughter to Dr. Eton, principal of Glouceſter hall, founded ſix fellowſhips. Lady Holford gave two exhibitions of 20 *l.* a-year each, for Charter-houſe ſcholars, to be enjoyed eight years.

Worceſter college is pleaſantly ſituated on an eminence juſt above the river Iſis and the meadows, at the extremity of the weſtern ſuburb. At entering the college are the *chapel* and *hall* one on each ſide, both of which are twenty-nine feet in breadth, and fifty in length. The *library*, which is a magnificent Ionic edifice, on the weſt of the chapel and hall, is 100 feet in length,

ſupported by a ſpacious cloiſter. It is furniſhed with a valuable collection of books, chiefly the library of Dr. Clarke, late fellow of All Souls' College; in which is Inigo Jones's Palladio, with his own manuſcript notes.

The *Members* are, a provoſt, twenty fellows, and ſeventeen ſcholars.

Viſitor. The chancellor of the univerſity.

HERTFORD COLLEGE. Hertford, or Hart Hall, an ancient houſe of learning, was an appendant to Exeter College; but, having received an endowment in part, was, at the requeſt of Dr. Richard Newton, then principal, who endowed the ſenior fellowſhips incorporated, September 8, 1740.

It is ſituated oppoſite to the gate of the public ſchools, and conſiſts of one court, but it is yet unfiniſhed.

It contains a principal, two ſenior fellows or tutors, junior fellows or aſſiſtants, under-graduate ſtudents, and four ſcholars.

Viſitor. The chancellor of the univerſity.

HALLS. The halls are five in number, and belong to colleges; viz. Saint Edmund's hall to Queen's college; Magdalen hall to the college of the ſame name; Saint Alban's hall to Merton college; Saint Mary's to Oriel; and New Inn to New College. They are under the government of their reſpective principals, whoſe incomes ariſe from the rent of the chambers. The ſtudents take an oath to obey the ſtatutes and cuſtoms of the hall, which ſtatutes are made and altered by the chancellor, who has the nomination of the principals, and is viſitor of all the halls, except that of Saint Edmund, which is dependent on Queen's college, and the principal appointed by that ſociety.

OTHER ESTABLISHMENTS. Beſide the colleges and halls, there are at Oxford ſeveral other eſtabliſhments connected with the univerſity, which demand attention. Theſe are, 1ſt, *The theatre*, which was built at the expence of archbiſhop Shelden, chancellor of the univerſity, 1668, who gave 2000 *l.* to purchaſe lands for its repairs. It is extremely magnificent, of the form of the Roman theatre, not circular, having one flat ſide, and the roof, eighty feet by ſeventy, reſts on the walls without pillars. 2d, *Aſhmole's muſeum*, the lower part of which is an elaboratory, and the upper ſtory a repoſitory of natural and artificial rarities, principally given by Elias Aſhmole, who lodged here the collection of MSS. made by his father-in-law, Sir William Dugdale, Anthony Wood, Sir Henry Savile, and himſelf. 3d, *The printing-houſe*, built in the year 1712, with the profits of the ſale of Lord Clarendon's Hiſtory of the Rebellion, the perpetual impreſſion of which he gave to the univerſity. Round the wall that formerly encloſed the theatre, ſtood the *Arundelian marbles*, now removed into the ſchools. Theſe valuable monuments,

ments, collected in Greece and Aſia, by Thomas Earl of Arundel, and Sir William Petty, were given by the ſaid Earl; others by Mr. Selden, Sir George Wheler, Dr. Shaw, Meſſrs. Dawkins and Wood, and Dr. Rawlinſon. To this collection, in the year 1755, were added, by the gift of the counteſs of Pomfret, above 100 ſtatues, buſts, &c. purchaſed by her late huſband's father lord Sempſter, out of the Arundelian collection. The whole collection now at Oxford conſiſts of 167 marbles, that is, ſtatues, buſts, bas-reliefs, and fragments of ſculpture; 100 inſcriptions, Greek, Egyptian, Citiean, and Palmyrene; and 145 Roman and others. 4th, *The public ſchools*, which form a magnificent quadrangle, part of which is appropriated for the reception of the Bodleian library. 5th, *The Radcliffe library*, founded by the will of Dr. Radcliffe, and finiſhed in the year 1769. 6th, A ſtupendous *aſtronomical obſervatory*, which has lately been erected at the north-weſt corner of the city, at the expence nearly of 30,000 *l.*, begun in the year 1771, by the truſtees of Dr. Radcliffe's eſtate. 7th, *The phyſic garden*, founded by Henry Danvers, earl of Danby, in 1632, and endowed with an annual revenue. Dr. Sherrard built the preſent library, furniſhed the garden with moſt of its curious plants, and, at the expence of 3000 *l.* endowed the profeſſorſhip. Laſt may be mentioned the collection called the *Univerſity*, or *Bodleian library*, which, as already has been ſaid, is placed in the public ſchools. This vaſt accumulation of literary treaſure was begun in 1440 by Humphrey, commonly called the *good*, duke of Glouceſter, who furniſhed it with many choice volumes procured from Italy, beſides conſiderable additions bequeathed at his death three years after. In 1597, Sir Thomas Bodley repaired the old library of Humphrey duke of Glouceſter, and in 1599 fitted it for the reception of books. An additional eaſtern gallery was begun by him in the year 1610, and another gallery on the weſt, projected by him, was erected afterwards. He furniſhed the library with a numerous collection of books, procured with much care and expence, from all parts of the world. He died January 28, 1612, leaving an eſtate for the maintenance of a librarian, &c. as well as for the neceſſary repairs of the library; he added alſo a body of ſtatutes for the regulation of his new inſtitution, which were afterwards confirmed in convocation. Many large and valuable collections of Greek and oriental manuſcripts, as well as choice and uſeful books, have been added to this library by later benefactors; particularly the earl of Pembroke, archbiſhop Laud, (to whom it is indebted for its ineſtimable oriental manuſcripts,) Sir Thomas Roe, Sir Kenelm Digby, General Fairfax, Dr. Marſhall, Dr. Barlow, Dr. Rawlinſon,

Mr. St. Amand, and Mr. Godwyn: conſiderable purchaſes are likewiſe annually made at the expence of the univerſity.'

DEGREES. The degrees denote a quality conferred on the ſtudents or members, as a teſtimony of their proficiency in the arts or faculties, and entitling them to certain privileges and precedencies. The degrees are, *bachelor*, *maſter*, and *doctor*; inſtead of which laſt, in ſome foreign univerſities, they have *licentiate*. In each faculty there are but two degrees, viz. *bachelor* and *maſter*.

BACHELORS. The degree of Bachelor was firſt introduced in the thirteenth century, by Pope Gregory IX., but remains ſtill unknown in Italy. At Oxford, before a perſon can be entitled to the degree of bachelor of arts, he muſt have ſtudied there four years three years more to become maſter of arts; and ſeven more to commence bachelor of divinity. This degree is only conferred in Lent.

DOCTORS. The title of Doctor was firſt created towards the middle of the twelfth century, to ſucceed to that of maſter, which was become too common and familiar. To paſs doctor in divinity at Oxford, it is neceſſary for the candidate to have been four years bachelor of divinity. For doctor of laws, he muſt have been ſeven years in the univerſity to commence bachelor of law; five years after which he may be admitted doctor. Otherwiſe, in three years after taking the degree of maſter of arts, he may take the degree of bachelor in law, and in four years more, that of LL.D. which ſame method and time are likewiſe required to paſs the degree of doctor in phyſic. At Oxford, degrees of maſter and doctor are only conferred once a-year, viz. the Monday after the 7th of July; when a ſolemn act is held for the purpoſe.

ACTS. An act is a theſis maintained in public by a candidate for a degree; or, to ſhew the capacity and proficiency of a ſtudent in the univerſity. The candidates for a degree of bachelor and maſter of arts, are to hold philoſophy acts; thoſe for bachelor of divinity, are to keep divinity acts, &c. At Oxford, the time when the maſters or doctors complete their degrees, is alſo called the *Act*; which is held with great ſolemnity: at Cambridge they call it the *Commencement*. *Act* is alſo a collegiate appellation for the perſon who propoſes queſtions that are the ſubject of diſputation in the exerciſes of the univerſity ſchools. The perſons with whom he contends in theſe queſtions are called *opponents*: and the diſcuſſion is proſecuted under the direction of the *moderator*. The diſtinguiſhed men of the year appear eight times in this manner in the ſchools; twice as *acts*, and ſix times as opponents. One *act* and three opponents are kept before the ſummer; and one act and three opponents in the term following the ſummer vacation.

TERMS.

TERMS. The terms are periods of the year in which progreſs can be made toward the attainment of degrees; in contradiſtinction from which, the reſt of the year is called *vacation*. In the univerſity of Oxford, the terms are four; *Hilary* or *Lent* term, which begins January 14th, and ends the Saturday before Palm Sunday. *Eaſter*-term, which begins the 10th day after Eaſter, and ends the Thurſday before Whitſunday. *Trinity*, or *act* term, which begins the Wedneſday after Trinity Sunday, and ends after the act or 6th of July, ſooner or later as the vice-chancellor and convocation pleaſe; and Michaelmas term, which begins October the 10th and ends December the 17th.

CAMBRIDGE. The original foundation of this ſeminary is involved in fabulous obſcurity, and the ſtories which have been propagated on the ſubject, confute themſelves by their own abſurdity. Theſe exceſſive ſtatements have ariſen from the rival claims of the two univerſities; partial antiquaries eſpouſing the ſide of each. Some have affirmed that this univerſity was firſt founded by Cantaber, a Spaniard, bred at Athens, 375 years before the commencement of the Chriſtian era, from whom alſo it received its name. Others, certainly with a greater ſhare of probability, aſcribe its foundation to Sigebert, king of the Eaſt Angles, about the year 630; but between the time of theſe two foundations, many marvellous anecdotes are recorded; which, with ſober antiquaries, are not entitled to the ſmalleſt credit. Caſſivellaun, the Britiſh prince of the Trinobantes, is repreſented as its patron; Joſeph of Arimathea, as its apoſtle; and Arthur, the early pride of Britain, as one who had endowed it with ſuperior privileges.

That it was ruined in the Daniſh invaſion, and lay long neglected, is pretty clear; as well as that it did not thoroughly recover itſelf, till the Norman government was eſtabliſhed.

The firſt charter of privileges to the univerſity, is ſaid to remain among the records in the Tower, dated 1231, the fifteenth year of Henry III.; and, perhaps, one great reaſon why the notices of its earlieſt hiſtory are ſo few and indiſtinct, is, that although houſes of learning, and inns and halls for ſcholars, were founded, they were without endowments. Before the eſtabliſhment of the preſent ſixteen colleges and halls, Cambridge had upwards of thirty inns, or hoſtels, where ſtudents lived and ſtudied at their own charge, and under a principal. Pythagoras's ſchool, in a garden adjoining St. John's-college-walks, is falſely ſuppoſed to have been one of theſe, where the Croyland monks read lectures; but is really the infirmary of St. John's Hoſpital. Edward IV. took it from King's College, Cambridge, and

and gave it to Merton College, Oxford; whose property it has ever since been, and is sometimes called Merton Hall.

The first college that received endowment was Peter-house; it was built in 1257, by Hugh de Balsham, bishop of Ely, who did not endow it till 1284; in imitation of whom, Richard Badew, assisted by Elizabeth Clare, countess of Ulster, 1340, founded Clare Hall; and other endowments succeeded.

The scholars were at first kept in private houses, hired every ten years, for the sole use of the university, assisted by benefactions.

The university, as composed of a chancellor, the masters, or heads, and fellows of the college, and the students, is incorporated as a society, for the study of all the liberal arts and sciences. Each college or hall is a body of itself, not only bound by internal regulations, but also controlled by the paramount law of the university: each furnishes members for the government of the whole.

Officers. The Officers are as follow.

Chancellor. The Chancellor is usually a nobleman, and may be changed every three years; or continued longer by the tacit consent of the university.

High Steward. The High Steward is chosen by the senate, and holds his office by patent from the university.

Vice Chancellor. The Vice Chancellor's is an annual office. He is chosen regularly by the body of the university, on the 4th of November, out of two persons nominated by the heads of houses.

Proctors. The Proctors, who are also annually chosen, on the 10th of October, must be masters of arts. They attend to the discipline and behaviour of the under graduates and bachelors, read the graces, and take the votes in the Whitehood-house.

Taxors. The Taxors, chosen in like manner as the Proctors, are with them clerks of the market, and have cognizance of weights and measures. Their office was originally made to counterbalance the exorbitance of the town's-people; who, before the foundation of the university had regular endowments, imposed on the scholars, to whom they let their houses for residence.

Moderators. The two Moderators superintend the exercises in philosophy, and the examinations previous to the degree of bachelor of arts. This they do as assistants to the proctors.

Scrutators. The Scrutators are appointed to read the grace and take the votes of the Blackhood-house, to which they always belong.

Commissary.

COMMISSARY. The Commiſſary is an aſſiſtant or aſſeſſor to the vice-chancellor in his court.

PUBLIC ORATOR. The Public Orator is the mouth of the univerſity on public occaſions; writes their letters, and preſents noblemen with their degrees, with a ſpeech.

CAPUT. The Caput conſiſts of the vice-chancellor, a doctor of divinity, a doctor of laws, a doctor of phyſic, a regent and non-regent maſter of arts, is choſen annually, on the 12th of October; and is to determine what graces are proper to be brought before the body of the univerſity.

OTHER OFFICERS. The univerſity has alſo two *Librarians*, a *Regiſtrar*, three *Eſquire Beadles*, and inferior officers, beſides profeſſors in Divinity, Law, Phyſic, Caſuiſtry, Hebrew, Greek, Arabic, Mathematics, Philoſophy, Aſtronomy, Anatomy, Chemiſtry, Botany, Modern Hiſtory, Foſſils, and Muſic.

PENSIONERS. Beſides the Fellows and Scholars of the different colleges, there are two other orders of ſtudents, called Penſioners. The *greater penſioners* are the young nobility and gentry of fortune, who are called *fellow commoners*, from their dining with the fellows; the *leſſer penſioners* are dieted with the ſcholars; but both live at their own expence.

SIZARS. There is alſo a large number of ſcholars of inferior fortune, called Sizars; theſe, though not regular members of the foundations, are capable of receiving exhibitions, which aſſiſt them very much in paſſing through an expenſive education.

COLLEGES. The univerſity buildings conſiſt of twelve colleges and four halls, which laſt poſſeſs the ſame privileges as the former. Each of theſe contains apartments for the ſtudents and fellows, a maſter's lodge, a chapel, a library; a hall, and a combination room.

PETER HOUSE COLLEGE. St. Peter's, or as it is more uſually called, Peter-houſe, is by ſome contended to be the moſt ancient in either univerſity; but its claim to this diſtinction is reſiſted by Univerſity, Baliol and Merton Colleges, Oxford. Peter-houſe claims for its founder Hugh de Balſham, ſub-prior of Ely, who, in 1257, the 42d Henry III. purchaſed two halls or hoſtels near St. Peter's church, which, though formerly of conſiderable note, were then fallen to decay. In 1258, he was elected to the ſee of Ely; but the conſent of the king not having been previouſly obtained, it was ſome time before the poſſeſſion of the biſhoprick was confirmed to him; which, having received, he at once ſhared his fortune with his college, removing there the ſecular brethren of St. John's in the Jewry, and endowing it with a foundation, for the maintenance of a maſter, fourteen fellows, two bible clerks, and eight ſcholars.

He

He appointed his ſucceſſors in the biſhoprick, to be patrons and viſitors of the college, with the appointment of maſter, and bequeathed, by his will, 300 marks, *viz.* 209 to build a hall, and 100 for a court. The charter of incorporation is dated 13th Edward I. anno 1285. The biſhop died in 1286, having ſat in the ſee of Ely twenty-eight years. The other principal benefactors were Simon de Montacute, biſhop of Ely, who was the author of a new body of ſtatutes, and gave the maſters and ſcholars the privilege of nominating their own members, which, till then, was veſted in the biſhops of Ely; reſerving to himſelf and ſucceſſors the power of confirming the nomination. He alſo beſtowed the patronage of the rectory of Kenton, and a ſmall manor in Hadenham, called Chewel. Simon Langham, biſhop of Ely, and afterwards archbiſhop of Canterbury; John Warkeworth, maſter; John Whitgift, archbiſhop of Canterbury; Fordham, biſhop of Ely; Walpole, biſhop of Norwich; Coſins, biſhop of Durham; Lady Mary Ramſey; Sir William Browne, M.D.; Edward Lord North, and Dr. Perne, were alſo important benefactors.

The name of this College is derived from St. Peter's church, which adjoined to it; but the chancel falling down in 1350, it was rebuilt in 1352, and dedicated to St. Mary the Leſs. The *building* conſiſts of two courts ſeparated by a cloiſter and gallery. The largeſt has been entirely new caſed with ſtone in an elegant manner. The leſſer court is divided by the chapel; and on the north ſide is a lofty elegant building faced with ſtone, from the upper part of which there is an extenſive proſpect, taking in Gogmagog hills, &c. This building contains ſix grand apartments.

The *Chapel* is a fine building, having in the gallery at the weſt end an organ, given by Sir Horatio Mann; at the eaſt, ſtands a very handſome altar-piece of Norway oak, over which is a window of fine painted glaſs, containing the hiſtory of our Saviour's crucifixion between the two thieves, the figures almoſt as large as life. This chapel was built by contribution in 1632, but Matthew Wren, biſhop of Ely, and then maſter of the college, was at the chief expence of it.

There is a grove ſouth of the college, and a large *Garden* beyond it, with very fine fruit, and a cold bath.

There are in this college a maſter, twenty-two fellows, and forty-three ſcholarſhips. The maſterſhip is in the gift of the biſhop of Ely, who is *Viſitor*. The fellows return two perſons, of one of whom he makes his election.

CLARE HALL. This College dates its firſt foundation from a purchaſe, made by Richard Badew, or Badow, of Great Badow,

near Chelmsford, in Eſſex, Chancellor of the Univerſity in 1236, 20th Edward III. upon which he erected a ſmall college, and placed therein a principal and ſome ſcholars. This eſtabliſhment had continued ſixteen years, when the whole building was deſtroyed by fire. Dr. Badow being unable himſelf to defray the charges of rebuilding, applied to Lady Elizabeth, third ſiſter and co-heireſs of Gilbert, Earl of Clare, and wife of John de Burgh, Lord of Connaught, in Ireland, and mother of William de Burgh, laſt earl of Ulſter; by whoſe munificent bounty alone the college was not only entirely reſtored, but endowed, in 1347, with lands ſufficient to maintain a maſter, ten fellows, and ten ſcholars; and from that time, it has taken the name of *Clare Hall*. It has alſo received benefactions from Dr. Barnabas Hey, Thomas Cecil, earl of Exeter, and his lady, Sir George Ruggle, Sir Robert Heath, Archbiſhop Tillotſon, Samuel Blyth, who gave to the value of 6000 *l.* in money and books; Dr. Leeds, Henchman, biſhop of London, Gunning, biſhop of Ely; Sir John Hewet, and ſome others.

The *ſituation* of this college is, in many reſpects, to be preferred to any other in the Univerſity, being on the eaſtern banks of the river, over which it has an elegant ſtone bridge, leading to a fine viſta, beyond which is a beautiful lawn, ſurrounded by lofty elms and corn fields. A more pleaſing proſpect cannot be conceived in a level country, which occaſions this delightful ſpot to be much reſorted to in ſummer. Buildings, gardens, groves, the river, and cultivated lands to a great extent, all combine to afford richneſs and variety to the ſcene.

The *Buildings* are extremely noble; the front towards the fields being ornamented with pilaſters of the Tuſcan and Ionic order, and the whole executed with Ketton ſtone, which gives a very fine effect. It conſiſts of one grand court, or quadrangle, through which is ſeen the inimitable viſta, leading to the fields.

The *Chapel* has been rebuilt from an elegant plan of Sir James Burroughs. The altar-piece, which is a beautiful alcove, is adorned with a fine picture of the Salutation, by Cipriani.

The *Hall* is a very fine room, and the *Combination-room*, the completeſt of the kind in the Univerſity.

The *Library* is alſo eſteemed the handſomeſt of the ſize in the Univerſity, being neatly ſhelved with Norway oak; and the maſter's lodge is moſt agreeably ſituated.

Clare Hall maintains 17 fellows, and between thirty and forty ſcholars.

Pembroke Hall. This Hall was founded by Mary, counteſs of Pembroke, in 1343, and endowed in purſuance of a charter from

from Edward III. for a maſter and ſix fellows. Among the benefactors who have enlarged this eſtabliſhment, Henry VI. is the moſt conſiderable; who augmented it with the rich living of Soham in this county, and with ſome other rectories. In his charter it is termed, "the moſt noble, renowned, precious college, which, among all others in the Univerſity, was ever wonderfully reſplendent." This monarch's beneficence occaſioned this college to be called his adopted daughter; as King's College was naturally his ſon. The other benefactors were Laurence Booth, archbiſhop of York, and Lord Chancellor of England, Dr. Shorton, Sir Philip Booth, Grindall, archbiſhop of Canterbury, Andrews, and Langton, biſhops of Wincheſter, and Wren, biſhop of Ely, who built the chapel, and endowed it with the manor of Hardwicke, in Cambridgeſhire, to keep it in repair.

This College conſiſts of two courts. The *Hall*, which divides them, is a handſome room, at the end of which is the combination room. There is ſomething altogether very venerable and pleaſing in the appearance of this college, which made Queen Elizabeth, when ſhe paſſed through Cambridge, ſalute it with theſe words:—"*O domus antiqua et religioſa.*"

The *Chapel* was built from a deſign of the celebrated Sir Chriſtopher Wren, by his brother Matthew Wren, biſhop of Ely, and is one of the moſt elegant and beſt proportioned in the Univerſity, being about fifty four feet long, twenty-four broad, and upwards of thirty high.

The *Library* takes up almoſt all the north ſide of the firſt court, is a handſome room, and well furniſhed with uſeful books. The Rev. Dr. Long, late maſter of this college, Dr. Lowndes's profeſſor of aſtronomy, conſtructed a ſphere (the largeſt of his time), which he gave to the college, and erected a building in the back court to contain it, at his own expence, and left the intereſt of 200 *l.* ſtock to keep the inſtrument and place in repair. It is eighteen feet in diameter.

The *Garden* is large, and well laid out, full of fruit, and has a good bowling green. The north wall, which is very long, and reflects the warm rays of the ſouth ſun, makes the walk which runs parallel to it, one of the beſt in winter; but it is private.

The fellowſhips are 17, the ſcholarſhips nearly 70.

CORPUS CHRISTI, *or* BENE'T'S COLLEGE. This college differs in its origin from all others, in either of the Univerſities; thoſe having been founded by the benevolence of one or two perſons, whiſe this was eſtabliſhed by the union of two guilds, or religious ſocieties, in the town of Cambridge, called *Corpus Chriſti* and *The Bleſſed Virgin Mary*; which, in order to obtain a licence from Edward III. to convert their houſes into a college, claimed and obtained the protection and munificent liberality of the celebrated

lebrated Henry of Monmouth, firſt duke of Lancaſter. The name of Bene't or Benedict's College, aroſe from neighbourhood to a church dedicated to that Saint. Other particular benefactors to this college were Sir John Cambridge, Elizabeth, wife of Thomas Brotherton, duke of Norfolk, ſon of Edward I.; Eleanor Botelar, her ſiſter; archbiſhop Parker, who gave the living of St. Mary Abchurch, London, a handſome ſet of gilt plate, with many printed books; Sir Nicholas Bacon, lord keeper of the Great Seal, who was a ſtudent of this college; archbiſhop Sterne; Dr. John Spencer, author of *De Legibus Hebræorum*; and archbiſhops Tenniſon and Herring, with many others.

This College conſiſts principally of one ſquare court, the maſter's lodge, and the hall, forming the ſouth ſide; and the apartments of the fellows and ſtudents, and the combination room, the weſt, north, and eaſt.

The *Chapel* is a neat apartment, well fitted up; it has an elegant altar-piece of carved wainſcot, ſupported by two large pillars; in the middle a pannel of crimſon velvet, in a gilt frame, the gift of Sir Jacob Aſtley. Over the door of the ante-chapel, which was built by Sir Nicholas Bacon, is an inſcription in letters of gold.

The *Library* (which is celebrated for its MSS.) is over the chapel; and the books are kept with ſuch care, that even a fellow of the college is not admitted to enter it, without having a fellow or ſcholar of the college with him during his ſtay there, according to the will of the donor.

The *Hall* is a large room, having two beautiful bow windows, finely ornamented with painted glaſs, which was taken from the chapel, being the arms of many of the maſters and benefactors.

This college contains a maſter, 12 fellows, 60 ſcholars, and 3 bible clerks.

Viſitors. The Chancellor or Vice Chancellor, with two ſenior doctors of divinity in the Univerſity.

Caius College. The building of Gonville or Caius, commonly called Key's College, was begun by Edmund de Gonville, rector of Terrington and Ruſhworth, in Norfolk, who, through the intereſt of Walter de Manney, obtained a licence, or charter, of Edward III. anno 1348, to incorporate it. The ſcite was originally on the ſpot now occupied with the garden and tennis court of Bene't; but Dr. Gonville, who died ſoon after its commencement, having left a large ſum of money to Dr. Bateman, biſhop of Norwich, to finiſh and endow it, the biſhop, in conſequence of an agreement with the maſter and fellows of Bene't, changed the ſituation to the neighbourhood of Trinity Hall, which he himſelf had founded; and, after faithfully performing

the duties of his truſt, he gave it the name of Gonville Hall, and appointed a maſter, four fellows, and two ſcholars.

After a lapſe of two hundred years, this college was deſtined to have a ſecond founder in Dr. John Caius; who had himſelf, when very young, been admitted a ſtudent of Gonville Hall. In 1557, being phyſician to Queen Mary, and a great favourite, he obtained a licence to advance the Hall into a college, which he endowed with very conſiderable eſtates, in the counties of Hertford, Dorſet, and Cambridge; the advowſon of the parſonages of Rungton and Burnhamſthorp, in Norfolk, and doubled the number of fellows. He alſo added an entire new court, and built three gates at the expence of 1834 *l.* From this time the college aſſumed Dr. Caius's name, and he continued maſter of it till within a ſhort time of his death. Among the other principal benefactors to this college, are Lady Mary Pakenham, Lady Anne Scroop, Lady Elizabeth Cleere, *Dr. Balie*, Richard Wilſon, Archbiſhop Parker, Dr. Buſby, Dr. Harvey, Sir William Paſton, Dr. Legge, Dr. Brainthwate, Dr. Goſtling, Dr. Wells, and Dr. Pierſe.

Beſides a new Court, Dr. Caius built three remarkable *gates* of various and eccentric architecture. That on the ſouth, communicating with the ſchools, is ſaid to be the firſt ſpecimen of regular or Roman architecture erected in this country. The gates are reſpectively inſcribed, "Humilitatis," the gate of Humility: "Virtutis," the gate of Virtue: "Jo. Caius poſuit Sapientiæ," John Caius built this in honour of Wiſdom; "Honoris," the gate of Honour. The principal court of this college has been partly rebuilt, and the reſt caſed with ſtone, and faſhed in an elegant manner.

The *Chapel* is not large, but admired for its beauty; is elegantly fitted up with ſeats and wainſcotting of Norway oak, neatly carved; at the eaſt end is the altar, containing the Annunciation of the Bleſſed Virgin Mary, after Carlo Maratti.

The *Hall* is thirty-nine feet long, and twenty-one broad; and the commemoration room, which is an exceeding good one, opens into the library, which is well furniſhed with valuable books and MSS. particularly in hiſtory, heraldry, and pedigrees.

The *Society* conſiſts of a maſter, twenty-ſix fellowſhips, ſeventy-one ſcholarſhips, and four exhibitioners.

Viſitors. The provoſt of King's College, maſter of Bene't, and the ſenior doctor of phyſic.

TRINITY HALL. The ſite of this College was anciently an hoſtel for ſtudents, without any endowment, who lived entirely at their own expence. It was enlarged at different periods, by Richard Ling, Chancellor of the Univerſity, Thomas Walſingham,

ham, and others. In the reign of Edward III. Richard Craudene, prior of Ely, purchaſed it for the reception of his monks, who reſorted to Cambridge to proſecute their ſtudies; but ſoon afterwards ſold it to William Bateman, biſhop of Norwich, who, in the 26th of Edward III. 1351, having obtained a licence from the King, founded this Hall, which he dedicated to the Holy Trinity, in 1347. He appointed a maſter, two fellows, and three ſcholars, to be ſtudents in the civil and canon law, and one fellow to ſtudy divinity, and to be chaplain to the ſociety. This college is ſituated on the banks of the river, between Trinity College and Clare Hall, and is one of the neateſt in Cambridge, having been faced with ſtone both within and without.

The *Chapel* is ſmall, but very neat. The altar piece contains the Preſentation in the Temple.

The *Hall* is a very handſome room, with a gallery for muſic at the north end; and is ornamented with the portrait of Sir Nathaniel Lloyd, a conſiderable benefactor.

The *Library* is neatly fitted up, containing, amongſt a fine collection of choice and valuable books, an entire ſtudy of civil and common law.

The *Garden* affords a very pleaſing proſpect, the terrace lying on the banks of the river. Among the benefactors to Trinity Hall, previous to the princely bequeſt of Dr. Andrews, are Gardiner, biſhop of Wincheſter; Nix, biſhop of Norwich; Dr. John Cowel; Sir George Newman; Dr. Monſe, who gave 80*l.* per annum for repairing the roads towards London, by Hawkeſtone Mills; and Dr. Henry Harvey, the twelfth maſter, who, at a great expenſe, made a raiſed cauſeway on the ſouth, and other ſides of Cambridge, for the convenience of foot paſſengers in dirty weather.

This College will be greatly enlarged by the addition of two wings, extending from the preſent buildings to the river, ſo as to leave the view open into the country. Dr. John Andrews, late fellow of this college, maſter of the faculties, and chancellor of London, having, in 1747, bequeathed a legacy of 20,000*l.* for that purpoſe, payable on the death of two ſiſters.

The *Society* conſiſts of a maſter, 12 fellows, and 14 ſcholars.

KING'S COLLEGE. King's College, which may on many accounts be conſidered as the moſt magnificent in Europe, was founded by Henry VI., who, in 1443, beſtowed upon it a moſt ample endowment for a provoſt, ſeventy fellows, and ſcholars, ten conducts, ſixteen choriſters, and a maſter for them; ſix ſinging clerks, ſixteen ſervants to the college, beſides twelve ſervitors to the ſenior fellows, and ſix poor ſcholars, amounting in all to 131. The dangers which continually threatened Henry's government and life, did not make him unmindful of the taſk

he had undertaken; for in his will he deſcribes, with the moſt minute particularity, the dimenſions of the college and chapel he intended to build, and according to which the latter was afterward finiſhed. The unfiniſhed ſtate of the college at Henry's death, may juſtly be lamented, for, according to Stow, "If it "had proceeded according to that prince's full intent and mean-"ing, the like college could ſcarce have been found again in any "chriſtian land." Edward IV. was naturally no zealous promoter of the intentions of his predeceſſor, and he deprived the college of many large eſtates, to the value of 1000*l.* a-year, all which were given to the Oxonians, then about the court. Nor did the building much advance during the turbulent reign of Richard III.; but Henry VII. in whom the line of Lancaſter was reſtored, began, towards the latter end of his reign, to complete the labours of the founder, expending 2000*l.* and preſenting the college with the ſum of 5000*l.* for the purpoſe of finiſhing the chapel. He alſo ordered at his deceaſe, that his executors ſhould ſupply the college, from time to time, with different ſums of money, ſufficient for completing the building. The liſt of benefactors to this college is very numerous. Dr. William Smith, when provoſt, gave books to the value of 100*l.* and a ſalt worth 40*l.*; a fine ſtanding cup, with pendent moving figures ſurrounding the middle: and both ſides of the choir were wainſcotted at the expence of Robins, Henſhaw, and Weaver, fellows of the college.

This College conſiſts of ſeveral large piles of building detached from each other. The old court is ſituate on the north ſide of the chapel, between the publick ſchools and Clare Hall; being about 120 feet long and 90 broad, built of ſtone to a great height, in which, however, there are but few commodious apartments. The new court forms a quadrangle, by the chapel on the north, the new building (which is very magnificent) on the weſt, and a brick building on the eaſt, in which are a ſchool and ſome other apartments, adjoining to which is a large lodge for the provoſt; on the ſouth, another pile of buildings is deſigned, which is to contain the hall and provoſt's lodge, with other apartments. This quadrangle is upwards of 300 feet long, and almoſt as many broad. On the weſt ſide, and near the battlements of the old building, are fixed ſome groteſque heads, each having a leaden pipe in its mouth for the purpoſe of carrying off the water.

The *Chapel* of King's College is juſtly eſteemed, by connoiſſeurs, the moſt perfect and magnificent monument of Gothic architecture in the world. How far it had advanced at the founder's death is uncertain: it is probable that it was raiſed pretty high at the eaſt end, and carried on ſloping towards the weſt, to the height of the white ſtone. Henry the firſt founder had

had ſettled a great part of the revenues of the duchy of Lancaſter, and alſo a ſtone quarry in Yorkſhire, for the completion of the work; but Edward IV. on his acceſſion, ſeized the revenue appropriated for the continuance of the building. An entire ſtop was conſequently put to the works until Dr. Field, warden of Wincheſter college, and chaplain to Edward, was choſen provoſt in 1479, and appointed overſeer of the works, in which ſituation he remained till 1483. Nothing from that time appears to have been done, until the appointment of Thomas Cliff as overſeer, by Richard III. who expended 700*l.* upon the building. The work was thus ſlowly advancing, until the reign of Henry VII. who finiſhed, or rather left a legacy for finiſhing, the outer walls and buttreſſes. In 1513, the executors of Henry paid to the provoſt and ſcholars 5000*l.* for the completion of the chapel, from which time it proceeded with rapidity. The builders immediately began to add a ſecond and inner roof of ſtone, inſtead of a Gothic arch, in forming which, and diſpoſing the materials, the architect has diſplayed ſuch a profound knowledge of geometrical principles, as to confound almoſt every artiſt who has ſince examined his workmanſhip. It has not ſo much as the appearance of a pillar to uphold it, the towers and buttreſſes being its only ſupport. In the middle of this roof, and in the flatteſt part of it, are fixed perpendicularly, at equal diſtances from one another, ſtones adorned with roſes and portculliſes, every one of which is not leſs than a ton weight. The diſpoſition of theſe keyſtones has embarraſſed the beſt architects. Mr. Walpole ſays, that Sir Chriſtopher Wren went once a year to ſurvey the roof, and ſaid, that "if any man would ſhew him where to place the "ſtone, he would engage to build ſuch another."

This roof was executed by John Waſtell and Henry Semerick, who by an indenture ſtill extant agree "to make, and ſet up at their own coſts and charges, a good, ſure, and ſufficient vawte, for the great church there, to be workmanly wrought, made and ſett up after the beſt handlying and form of good workmanſhip according to a plat thereof made and ſigned with the hands of the lords executors to the king of moſt famous memorye Henry the VII. &c." They alſo agree to provide ſtone, and every other requiſite for the ſaid work, to finiſh it in three years, and to receive 1200*l.* for their whole labour and materials.

The deſign of the chapel is at once bold, chaſte, and profound; and its exterior and interior effects are grand and impreſſive. It conſiſts of only one ſpace or aiſle, which is 287 feet in length, by 44 feet in width, and 93 feet in height. This ſpacious apartment is ſurrounded with various

attractive beauties; and the ſculptor, painter, glazier, and architect, ſeem to emulate each other in exciting admiration. The whole interior ſuperficies is covered with numerous ſculptured ornaments, among which the arms and cognizances of the houſes of York and Lancaſter are moſt prevalent. The roſe, portcullis, fleur de lis, with ſhields of arms, are ſtuck all over the walls. Theſe are carved in high alto relievo, and are executed with great ſkill and taſte. Some of the ſupporters diſplay the hand of a firſt-rate ſtatuary, and though cut in ſtone, are equal, in contour, expreſſion, and character, to almoſt any marble ſculpture.

About the middle of the chapel is a partition ſkreen of wood curiouſly carved, ſeparating the ante-chapel from the choir, which was built in 1534, when Anne Boleyn was queen to Henry VIII. On the front of it are many lovers' knots; and in a pannel neareſt to the wall, on the right, are the arms of Anne Boleyn, impaled with thoſe of her royal huſband: and on one of the pannels on the ſame ſide, is carved a moſt lively repreſentation of the Almighty caſting down the rebellious angels from heaven. This ſmall piece of ſculpture is univerſally admired.

On the left of the choir door, and in the pannel neareſt to it, the ſupporters of the arms of Henry VIII. are executed with inimitable ſkill. On the partition ſtands the organ, which, however, does not prevent a full view of the beautiful roof, from the great weſt door to the eaſt window, a view which muſt ſtrike any mind with awe and admiration.

On the ſame partition are fixed nine colours, taken from the iſland of Manilla, by Sir William Draper, who commanded the Britiſh troops at the reduction of the iſland, in 1762. Sir William, being a fellow of this college, obtained his majeſty's permiſſion to preſent the ſociety with theſe trophies of his victories.

Underneath the organ, through folding-doors finely carved (on which are ſeen the arms of James I. in whoſe reign they were ſet up), is the entrance to the choir, which is ſtrikingly grand. The ſtalls are in two rows, on each ſide of the chapel, in carved wood. The ſides were wainſcotted in 1595, at the expenſe of Thomas Weaver, a fellow of the college.

The back part of the upper ſtalls, appointed for graduate fellows, is made up of thirty-four pannels; in fifteen of which, on each ſide of the choir, are carved the arms of all the kings of England, from Henry V. to James I.; the arms of the two Univerſities of Cambridge and Oxford, and the two colleges, King's and Eton. The ſupporters of theſe arms advance out from the pannels in full proportion; and, indeed, the greateſt

part

part of the carved work is in *alto relievo*. On the right and left of the entrance of the choir, are the ſeats of the provoſt and vice provoſt. At the back of the provoſt's ſtall, St. George and the Dragon, with ſome figures, the work of which is executed in a moſt inimitable manner, are carved.

The lower row of ſtalls contains nearly the ſame number of ſeats with the upper immediately above it; and is appointed for the under-graduate fellows, the ſcholars, and the ſinging clerks. Under theſe lower ſtalls are erected benches, on two of which ſit the choriſters on each ſide of the chapel.

The pavement of the choir is of black and white marble, which, though its beauty is much effaced by the dampneſs of the ſoil underneath, ſtill preſerves a rich and coſtly appearance.

A new and grand altar-piece has been erected, under the direction of the late Mr. James Eſſex, F. S. A. which has received great ornament by the preſent of a valuable painting from the preſent earl of Carliſle, who was educated at this college. The ſubject is the taking down of our Saviour from the Croſs.

The windows, which are of the Gothic form, are not to be equalled in Europe. The pieces repreſented, are the moſt ſtriking features of different parts of the hiſtory contained in the Old and New Teſtament, and are depicted in the moſt lively colours. There are twenty-ſix large windows, which are all painted with colours inconceivably beautiful, excepting the great eaſt window, which ſeems to have been left plain, in order to give light to the chapel. It has been often ſaid that all the windows of the chapel were taken down and hidden, through fear of Oliver Cromwell; leſt, in obedience to the fanatic principles he profeſſed, he ſhould deſtroy them as relics of popery; and that the weſt window, through the confuſion thus occaſioned, was either loſt or ſtolen. But no ſuch accident ever happened, though viſitors were undoubtedly ſent down by the long parliament to Cambridge, whoſe buſineſs it was to remove every ſuperſtitious ornament about the Univerſity. In purſuance to their commiſſion, they, indeed, ordered the organ then in uſe to be taken down, and ſold the pipes; but offered not the ſlighteſt injury to the windows, which were probably ſpared at the interceſſion of Dr. Whichcot, then provoſt, who was promoted to that dignity by the long parliament. The image, however, of the Virgin Mary, (over the ſouth door within the choir,) did not eſcape the hands of ſome furious enthuſiaſt, who, in a fit of religious phrenzy, effaced an object ſo offenſive to his jaundiced ſight. Each window is ſeparated, by what architects call munions into five lights. Theſe are divided about the middle into an upper and lower part by a ſtone tranſom. There is one of theſe five lights (in all the windows except the eaſtern,) both in the upper and lower diviſions, viz. the one in the middle, on which are de-

ſcribed figures of Saints or Angels (two in the upper parts and two in the lower) with labels affixed to each, explaining the paintings on the lights placed on either ſide of them. There is a particular correſpondence between the paintings of the ſame window in the upper and lower diviſions. As, for example, in the upper diviſion, a piece of Hiſtory, taken from the Old Teſtament, is painted on two lights, on the left ſide of a window. In the lower diviſion, on the ſame ſide, on two lights immediately underneath thoſe in the upper part, is painted ſome circumſtance ſelected from the New Teſtament, correſponding to that above it from the Old. The lower diviſions of windows on the north ſide, contain a part of our Saviour's hiſtory, including ſome ſhort time before his birth; the laſt of the paintings deſcribing the circumſtance of his being ſcourged before Pontius Pilate. It is impoſſible to convey any idea of theſe hiſtorical paintings, which will not fall ſhort of their exceſſive beauty; for, in the greater part of them, the ſhape and attitude of particular figures, the fitneſs and expreſſion of their countenances, and the colouring and eaſy flow of the drapery, are all wonderfully natural, and far beyond the limits of deſcription.

The arms of Henry VIII. and the initial letter of his name, printed on the windows, has raiſed a conjecture, that they were glazed at his expence; but, it is more probable, that part of the legacy in the will of Henry VII. was devoted to that purpoſe. It, however, appears, from Bloomfield's Hiſtory of Norfolk, that Robert Rix, biſhop of Norwich, was an involuntary contributor to this noble purpoſe, for having incurred a præmunire for extending his juriſdiction over the mayor of Thetford, he was fined for it, and part of the fine was appropriated to the purchaſe of the windows of painted glaſs in King's College chapel.

On the north and ſouth ſides of the chapel, are eighteen ſmall veſtries or chantries (nine on each ſide,) which appear to have been devoted to the ceremony of ſaying maſs for the ſouls of the deceaſed; and any ſuperior of the ſociety, who was inclined to have that ſervice performed for his ſoul, endowed one of theſe veſtries for the purpoſe.

The outſide dimenſions of the chapel are, length from eaſt to weſt, 316 feet. Breadth from north to ſouth, 84 feet. Height from the ground to the top of the battlements, 90 feet. Height from the ground to the top of the pinnacles, about 101 feet. Height from the ground to the top of any one of the corner towers, 146½ feet.

QUEEN'S COLLEGE. This College was founded in 1448 by Margaret, daughter of Rene, duke of Anjou, titular king of Sicily and Jeruſalem, and the intrepid wife of Henry VI. king of England. After the murder of Henry VI. and the expulſion of

Margaret

Margaret from the throne and realm, Queen Elizabeth Woodeville, wife of Edward IV. was ſo conſiderable a benefactreſs, that ſhe is annually commemorated as a co-foundreſs of the college. Andrew Ducket, a friar, rector of St. Botolph, in Cambridge, and principal of Bernard Hotel, the ſole procurer and advancer of this foundation, was the firſt maſter of this college, in which ſtation he continued forty years; and having the good fortune to be favoured by both the houſes of York and Lancaſter, he obtained contributions from the princes of both families; particularly from Richard III. and Queen Elizabeth, and other noble benefactors, which enabled him to finiſh the college. Richard's benefaction alone, if it had not been reſumed in the ſucceeding reign, by Henry VII. had been an ample proviſion for this ſociety; for it conſiſted of all the eſtate of John de Vere, thirteenth earl of Oxford, which was forfeited by his adherence to the Earl of Richmond, afterwards Henry VII. but reſtored to the earl of Oxford on Henry's mounting the throne. Other benefactors were Thomas Barry, a citizen of London, who gave the ground on which the college was built; John Mark, Lady Jane Burrough, John Collinſon, John Green, John Alfey and Lady Wiat, who founded each a fellowſhip; John Drewell, canon of St. Paul's, London, founded two fellowſhips; John Darby founded one fellowſhip; and Lady Margery Roſs founded the five ſenior divines fellowſhips. George, duke of Clarence, Cicely, Ducheſs of York, Richard III. and Lady Anne, his wife, Edward, earl of Saliſbury, Maud, Counteſs of Oxford, Marmaduke Lumlay, biſhop of Lincoln, Andrew Ducket, Maſter Hugh Trotter, D.D. William Weld, Sir Thomas Smith, Henry Wilſhaw, Dr. Stokes, Henry Haſtings, Earl of Huntingdon, John Jocelyn, George Mountain, John D'Avenant, and David Hughes, are alſo in the liſt of conſiderable benefactors.

Queen's College is ſituated on the river near the King's mill; and conſiſts of two courts, beſides a pile of building near the gardens. The principal court is 96 feet long and 84 broad. The ſecond court is ſurrounded by a cloiſter, about 330 feet in circumference. The college has, within theſe few years, received a noble improvement, by a new and exceedingly grand front next the river.

The *Chapel* is about 54 feet long, and 21 broad, and is fitted up with remarkable neatneſs.

The *Hall* is a large room, and is ornamented with the portraits of Elizabeth wife of Edward IV. and ſome others. The lodge is furniſhed with a great number of portraits of eminent perſons.

The greateſt beauty of this college is its grove and *gardens*; which, lying on both ſides of the river, are connected with

each

each other, and the college by two bridges of wood. The ſtructure of one of the bridges is curious, being built of one arch upon piers of ſtone. The gardens are very extenſive and well planted with fruit, and adorned with rows of elms and fine walks.

The ſociety conſiſts of a preſident, 20 fellows, 45 ſcholars, and 8 exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The King.

CATHARINE HALL. This Hall was founded in 1475, by Dr. Richard Woodlark, who having obtained a licence from Edward IV. for that purpoſe, purchaſed four tenements in Mill-ſtreet, whereon this hall was built, for one maſter and three fellows; dedicating it to St. Catherine, the Virgin and Martyr. The liſt of benefactors to this college is very numerous. Among the principal, are Iſabella the founder's ſiſter; Lady Elizabeth Barnardiſton; Sir Charles Bolwis, bart.; Edward Sandys, archbiſhop of York; Overall, biſhop of Litchfield; Brownrig, biſhop of Exeter; John Lightfoot, S. T. P.; Sir Thomas Rookly, one of the judges of the common pleas; Dr. Addenbrooke; archbiſhop Dawes; Dr. Sherlock; Queen Anne, who annexed the prebend of Norwich to the college; Dr. Croſs, and Dr. Hubbard, maſters; Mrs. Mary Ramſden, of Norton in Yorkſhire, who left a conſiderable eſtate for finiſhing the building oppoſite the chapel, and for founding ſix fellowſhips and ten ſcholarſhips; and Dr. Thomas Sherlock, biſhop of London.

Catherine Hall is ſituated between Queen's College, on the weſt, and Trompington-ſtreet on the eaſt. The principal front is on the weſt, oppoſite to Queen's, and is one of the moſt extenſive and regular in the Univerſity. The entrance of the college on this ſide, is through a covered arch or portico, that leads into a court about 180 feet long and 120 broad.

The *Chapel*, on the north ſide of the court, is a fine piece of architecture, built chiefly of brick; but the door caſe, window frames, and coins of ſtone. This chapel, including the ante-chapel, is about 75 feet long, 30 broad, and 36 in height, finely beautified and adorned; and in the ante-chapel is a noble monument of white marble, erected by Sir William Dawes, archbiſhop of York, in memory of his lady.

The *Hall* is about 42 feet long and 24 broad, and of a proportionable height, elegantly ſtuccoed; over this and the combination room, is the *Library*, fitted up at the expence of Dr. Thomas Sherlock, late biſhop of London, who bequeathed to the college his large and valuable library, and a ſtipend for a librarian.

The *Maſter's Lodge* is a ſpacious lofty building, and with the additional building by Mrs. Ramſden, extending as far to the

eaſtward as the chapel, forms the ſouth ſide of the court, which being opened towards Trompington-ſtreet, with iron paliſadoes, and a ſpacious area of the ground planted with elms, is of conſiderable ornament to the town.

The *Society* conſiſts of a maſter, 12 fellows, 2 chaplains, and about 40 ſcholars and exhibitioners.

Jesus College. This College was originally an old nunnery of the Benedictine order, dedicated to St. Radigund. The irregular lives of theſe frail ſiſters occaſioned its diſſolution; and the college was founded in the twelfth of Henry VII. 1496, by John Alcock, biſhop of Ely, and Chancellor of England. Henry VII. and Pope Julius II. granted Biſhop Alcock conſiderable landed property for the endowment of the college; ſufficient for the maintenance of a maſter, ſix fellows, and ſix ſcholars. It was ſtyled the college of the Bleſſed Virgin St. Mary, St. John the Evangeliſt, and the Virgin St. Radegund; and derives its name of Jeſus College from the conventual church (now the chapel), dedicated firſt to the name of Jeſus. The principal benefactors are Stanley, biſhop of Ely; Sir Robert Read; Dr. Preſton; Dr. Fuller; Lady Price; Lady Margaret Boſwell; Sterne, archbiſhop of York, who gave a yearly penſion of 40 *l.* for four ſcholarſhips; Dr. Brunſel; Tobias Ruſtet, eſq. who founded eight ſcholarſhips, of 50 *l.* each per annum, for the orphans of clergymen; Dr. Gatford; Dr. Cooke; Sir John Riſley; Thomas Sutton, founder of the Charter Houſe; Thirleby, biſhop of Ely, who gave the advowſon of ſix vicarages; and Sir Thomas Proby. Dr. Henry Cæſar, Dean of Ely, in 1614, bequeathed 1000 *l.* to found two fellowſhips and four ſcholarſhips in ſome college in Cambridge; and Sir Charles Cæſar, his nephew and executor, made choice of Jeſus, and eſtabliſhed the objects of the bequeſt. Being perſuaded, by Archbiſhop Laud, to lend the money to Charles I., the ſalaries were for ſome time paid out of his own pocket, hoping to be repaid by the crown; but his endeavours for that purpoſe failed, and thus this noble legacy was entirely loſt to the College.

Jeſus College is ſituated eaſt of the town, and ſurrounded by groves, gardens, and verdant meadows. The grand front looks towards the ſouth, and is about 180 feet in length, regularly built and faſhed. The entrance is by a magnificent gate, over which are ſome pleaſant apartments. The principal court is built on three ſides, and is about 141 feet long, and 120 broad; the weſt ſide lies open to the fields, having only a dwarf-wall and iron paliſadoes upon it. There is a fine proſpect of the country on every ſide.

The *Chapel* is built in the conventual form, with croſs aiſles, and a large ſquare tower, raiſed on arches over their interſection with

with the nave. The chancel, which is the only part of it uſed for divine ſervice, is handſomely fitted up, and adorned with an altar-piece, ſtalls, and an organ-gallery.

The *Hall* is a handſome room, 54 feet long, 27 broad, and 30 high, to which the aſcent is by ſeveral ſteps.

There is a *Cloiſter*, like thoſe in the nunneries abroad, which ſurrounds a ſmall court, lately beautified and rendered more open and airy. It leads to the chapel, hall, maſter's lodge, and ſeveral apartments of the ſtudents. The maſter's lodge is one of the pleaſanteſt in the univerſity; and both the maſters and fellows have large ſeparate gardens.

The *Society* conſiſts of a maſter, ſixteen fellows, forty-one ſcholars and exhibitioners.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Ely.

CHRIST'S COLLEGE. Chriſt's College was founded in 1505, 21ſt Henry VII. by Margaret, counteſs of Richmond and Derby, the learned and pious mother of Henry VII. and ſole heireſs of John Beaufort, duke of Somerſet, grandſon of John of Gaunt. It was placed on the ſite of a monaſtery, called God's Houſe, oppoſite to St. Andrew's church; and a maſter, twelve fellows, and forty-ſeven ſcholars (in all ſixty), were appointed; to which Edward VI. added another fellowſhip out of the impropriation of Bourne, which he gave to the college, as well as the revenues of Bromwell abbey. Henry VI. being the founder of the monaſtery called God's Houſe, he is commemorated as a co-founder. Sir Thomas Finch and Sir John Baines founded two ſcholarſhips and two fellowſhips; Fiſher, biſhop of Rocheſter, Sir Walter Mildmay, Dr. Patinſon, Nicholas Culverwell, Thomas Langton, Mr. Wentworth, Sir Robert Iſham, and Richard Carr, were alſo conſiderable benefactors.

This College ſtands north of Emanuel, oppoſite to St. Andrew's church, and has one grand court, about 138 feet long, and 120 broad, formed by the chapel, maſter's lodge, hall, and apartments for the ſtudents. It is caſed with ſtone, and faſhed in a handſome manner. There is likewiſe an uniform pile of ſtone building, next the garden and the field, about 150 feet in length, from which there is a fine view of the adjacent country.

The *Chapel*, including the Ante-Chapel, is about eighty-four feet long, twenty-ſeven broad, and thirty high, floored with marble, well adorned and finiſhed, and has an organ gallery on the north ſide of it.

The *Hall* is a handſome room, forty-five feet long, twenty-ſeven broad, and thirty high. The Fellows' *Garden* is well laid out and pleaſant, there being both open and ſhady walks, beautiful

tiful alcoves, a bowling green, and an excellent ſummer-houſe, behind which is a cold bath ſurrounded with a little wilderneſs.

The *Society* conſiſts of a maſter, fifteen fellows, and fifty-four ſcholars.

Viſitors. The Vice-chancellor and two ſenior doctors.

ST. JOHN'S COLLEGE. This College received its name from the diſſolved hoſpital of St. John's, on the ſite whereof it was built. It was founded the 9th of April, 1511, by the executors under the will of Margaret, counteſs of Richmond, foundreſs of Chriſt's. The counteſs being under ſome engagement to her ſon, Henry VII., to forward Weſtminſter, obtained his conſent to alter her purpoſe, and by her will deviſed certain lands in the counties of Devon, Somerſet, and Northampton, of the value of 400*l.* per annum, together with the ſite of the diſſolved priory of St. John's, in Cambridge, and the revenue thereof, amounting to 80*l.* a year, to her executors, Fox, biſhop of Wincheſter, Fiſher, biſhop of Rocheſter, and others, in truſt for the building and endowing of the college. The exertions of biſhop Fiſher were ſo unremitting, that the firſt court was finiſhed in 1515, the expence being between 4 and 5000*l.*; but the eſtates in the counties of Devon, Somerſet, and Northampton, being reſumed by the crown, the revenues were very inconſiderable, the allowance to each fellow being no more than 12*d.* per week, and 7*d.* per week for each ſcholar. In 1516, biſhop Fiſher himſelf came to Cambridge, being chancellor of the univerſity, and aſſiſted at the opening of the college, which was performed with great ſolemnity. He alſo conſtituted Dr. Alan Percy, maſter; Dr. Shorton, who had been indefatigable in forwarding the buildings, and active in the government of the college, having reſigned. Thirty-one fellows were choſen at the ſame time, and a ſet of ſtatutes framed and ſworn to.

St. John's College conſiſts of three courts, lying between the High-ſtreet and the river. The firſt is entered by a magnificent gate, adorned with four towers of ſtone and brick, on the north or right hand of which ſtands the chapel; on the weſt, oppoſite the gate, is the hall, and in the angle formed by them, the maſter's lodge; and the reſt of the court, which is about 228 feet long, and 216 broad, is taken up by the apartments of the ſtudents. The ſouth ſide is rebuilt with ſtone, and makes a handſome appearance.

The ſecond court is chiefly taken up with the apartments of the fellows, only on the north a beautiful gallery, belonging to the maſter's lodge, extends the whole length of its principal floor, quite from the chapel in the firſt court to the library in the third. This is much the largeſt court, being upwards of 270 feet in length, and 240 in breadth.

From

From the ſecond court the way to the third is by a grand open arch or portico; this court, which is the leaſt of the three, is ſituate on the river, and has walks and groves on the oppoſite ſide, in full view. Under the apartments on the weſt is a commodious cloiſter; and on the north is the college library, built by that public ſpirited prelate, archbiſhop Williams, who was the greateſt benefactor of his time to every literary eſtabliſhment.

The *Chapel*, with the Ante-Chapel, is 120 feet long, and 27 broad, ſeparated by the organ-gallery. The ſervice is performed as in cathedrals; a certain number of ſinging men and choriſters attending.

The *Hall* is a good room, about 60 feet long and 30 broad, adorned with fine paintings, and the lodge is a grand apartment ſimilarly decorated.

Adjoining to the maſter's lodge is the *Library*, built by archbiſhop Williams. It is a ſpacious room, exceedingly well furniſhed with ſcarce and valuable books, in all languages, and carries more the appearance of the library of an univerſity, than a ſingle college. There is one claſs given by Matthew Prior, the poet, which conſiſts principally of French books, particularly hiſtory. This college poſſeſſes every attraction which wood, water, and green fields can afford it. A fine ſtone bridge, of no leſs than three arches, over the ſluggiſh Cam, leads from the college to a grand walk, flanked with lofty elms, at the end of which lies the *Fellows' Garden*, where they have an elegant ſummer-houſe, bowling green, and moſt agreeable walks, looking into the grounds of Trinity College on one ſide, and an open cultivated country on the other. The paths, encompaſſing two ſmall meadows on the river ſide, are much admired.

The *Society* conſiſts of a maſter, ſixty-one fellows, above one hundred ſcholars, and many exhibitioners.

VISITOR. The biſhop of Ely.

MAGDALEN COLLEGE. The original founder of this college was Edward Stafford, duke of Buckingham, ſon of Henry, who was beheaded in the reign of Richard III. Edward being reſtored to his father's honours and eſtate, became the diſtinguiſhed favourite of Henry VIII., but was afterwards ſacrificed to that tyrant's capricious rage. The college not being legally completed on the duke's death (as was pretended in the caſe of Chriſt-church, Oxford, founded by Wolſey), Thomas Lord Audley, baron of Walden, and lord high chancellor of England, obtained a grant from Henry VIII. incorporated the ſociety by the name of "The Maſter and Fellows of St. Mary Magdalen College, in the Univerſity of Cambridge," and endowed

dowed it with lands for the maintenance of a maſter and four fellows, which number has ſince been increaſed to ſixteen, by the benefactions of Mr. Dennis, in 1543; Mr. Spendloffe, of Lincoln, in 1584; Sir Chriſtopher Ray, lord chief juſtice of the Common Pleas, in 1587; and at his death in 1592, the counteſs of Warwick, daughter of the ſaid Sir Chriſtopher, in 1624; Mr. John Smith, preſident of the college, in 1637; and the Rev. Mr. Drue Drury, in 1698. Several good fellowſhips and exhibitions were founded by John Hughs, chancellor of Bangor, in 1543; Mr. Roberts, in 1591; Godfrey Fuljamb, eſq. in 1604; Mr. William Holmes, in 1656; Dr. Duport, maſter of this college, in 1679; Dr. Milner, vicar of Bexhill, in Suſſex, in 1722; and his ſiſter, Mrs. Milner; Dr. Millington, vicar of Kenſington, in 1724; and his brother, Mr. James Millington. The moſt conſiderable contributors to the new building were, Gabriel Quadring, D. D. rector of Dry Drayton, and maſter of this college; earl of Angleſea; Sir Thomas Sanderſon, afterwards lord Caſtleton; James, earl of Suffolk; biſhop Rainbow; Samuel Pepys, eſq.; biſhop Cumberland; Charles Seymour, duke of Somerſet; lord North and Grey; Dr. Duport; Sir Edward Sawyer, attorney general.

Magdalen is the only college on the north ſide of the river, and in that part of the town called Caſtle End. The largeſt court is about 111 feet long, and 78 broad; the chapel and maſter's lodge being on the north, and the hall on the eaſt. The ſecond court is handſome, and more removed from the noiſe of the town. On the north-eaſt is a handſome ſtone building, with a cloiſter in front, and the fellows' apartment in the north and ſouth wings.

The *Chapel*, which is extremely neat, is 48 feet long, 18 broad, and of a proportionable height. The alter-piece of plaiſter of Paris, repreſenting the Reſurrection, in *alto relievo*, by the ingenious Mr. Collins, is worthy of obſervation.

The *Hall* is 45 feet long, 18 broad, and 21 high, having a good gallery and combination room at the ſouth end.

The old *Library*, in the north-eaſt angle of the firſt court, is well furniſhed with printed books and manuſcripts. Over the cloiſter in the ſecond court is an invaluable library, with this inſcription and motto:—Bibliotheca Pepyſiana. "Mens cujuſque is eſt quiſque." In this collection are the books and manuſcripts of Samuel Pepys, eſq. ſecretary to the Admiralty, in the reigns of Charles II. and James II. They conſiſt of a large collection of acts of ſtate, books and manuſcripts relating to maritime affairs, in ſeveral reigns. There is, alſo, in this library, a great number of curious prints and drawings, by the moſt celebrated maſters in Europe.

The

The *Society*, at preſent, conſiſts of a maſter, ſixteen fellows, forty ſcholars and exhibitioners.

Viſitor. Lord Howard.

TRINITY COLLEGE. This College was founded by Henry VIII. on the ſite of two other colleges, and a hoſtel, *viz.*—1. King's Hall, founded by Henry III. 2. St. Michael's, built by —— Harvey, of Stanton, chancellor of the exchequer, 17th Edward II.; and, 3. Phyſick's Hoſtel, built by William Phyſick, eſquire-beadle; to the revenues of which houſes Henry VIII. made great additions, and erected one ſpacious college, dedicating it to the Holy Trinity, appointing a maſter, ſixty fellows, ſixty-ſeven ſcholars, four conducts, three publick profeſſors, thirteen poor ſcholars, twenty beadſmen, beſides ſervants. Subſequent benefactors were, Thomas Allen, clerk; Sir Edward Stanhope, who gave 900 *l.* to the library; the lady Bromley; the lady Anne Weald; Mrs. Elizabeth Elvis; Dr. Bill, maſter; Dr. Beaumont, maſter; Dr. Whitgift, maſter; Dr. Coſins; Dr. Barrow, maſter; Dr. Skevington; William Cooper, eſq.; Sir William Lidley; Sir Thomas Lake; Sir John Suckling; Dr. Robert Bankworth; Sir Ralph Hare; Dr. Duport; Sir Thomas Sclater; Dr. Babbington; biſhop Hacket; the reverend and learned Dr. Robert Smith; the late maſter, Dr. Hooper; and Dr. Richard Walker.

Trinity College is ſituate between the High-ſtreet on the eaſt, and the river Cam on the weſt, having St. John's college on the north, and Caius college on the ſouth, and contains two ſpacious quadrangles. The firſt court, next the ſtreet, is much the largeſt, being 344 feet in length on the weſt ſide, and 325 on the eaſt; 287 feet broad on the ſouth ſide, and 256 on the north. It has a magnificent gate, which is the entrance from the ſtreet; and another gate, adorned with four lofty towers, called Queen's-gate, on the ſouth. The chapel, the maſter's lodge, and the hall, form near one half of this grand quadrangle; in the middle of which is a beautiful conduit of an octagonal figure, ſupported by pillars, which ſupplies the college with excellent water, always running, conveyed thither by a ſubterraneous aqueduct a mile in length. The ſouth end of the weſt ſide has been rebuilt in an elegant ſtyle, and is a ſpecimen of the manner of which it is propoſed to rebuild the whole quadrangle. In this building are the new combination rooms, the largeſt of which is very neatly fitted up, and adorned with paintings. The ſecond court, which was built by Dr. Thomas Nevill, dean of Canterbury, maſter of this college, and called Nevill's Court, meaſures 228 feet on the ſouth ſide, 223 on the north, 132 on the eaſt, and 148 on the weſt. The greateſt part of the ſouth and north ſides having been rebuilt, and the

other parts much altered, and beautified with a baluſtrade, and other ornaments, this court is eſteemed the moſt elegant, being encompaſſed on three ſides by a ſpacious piazza, over which are the library and apartments of the ſtudents; the hall forming the eaſt ſide of the court, in the front of which is a grand tribunal upon a terrace, with a handſome flight of ſteps and baluſtrade. The area, in the middle, is laid out in one beautiful large graſs-plat, with a neat border of ſtone round it.

The *Chapel*, is a grand and elegant ſtructure, 204 feet in length, including the Ante-chapel, and 33 feet 8 inches broad on the inſide; the height 43 feet 7 inches. A beautiful ſimplicity reigns throughout the building. The altar-piece is a fine painting by Weſt; the ſubject, St. Michael driving the rebellious angels out of heaven. The chapel is adorned with elegant ſtalls, and a noble organ-gallery, which ſeparates the chapel from the ante-chapel. Here are ſinging men and choriſters as in a cathedral, and a moſt admirable organ; in no place can the audience be more gratified with ſolemn church-muſic, nor is the eye leſs delighted than the ear, from the great number of ſtudents ranged in regular order, in this noble oratory, which is illuminated in the evening by a vaſt number of wax lights. In the ante-chapel ſtands, erected at the expence of the late maſter, Dr. Smith, a noble ſtatue of Sir Iſaac Newton, executed by the celebrated Roubillac, and eſteemed an admirable piece of ſtatuary.

Near the chapel ſtands the *Maſter's Lodge*, in which are very grand apartments, fit for the reception of a prince; and here the king always reſides and is entertained, whenever he viſits Cambridge. The judges, alſo, in their circuits, make this their reſidence during the aſſizes.

The *Hall*, at the ſouth end of the maſter's lodge, is ſuitable to the other public buildings; being upward of 100 feet long, forty broad, and fifty high, with two grand bow windows of an extraordinary depth. It is adorned with many portraits and buſts.

The *Library*, which conſtitutes the weſt end of Neuill's, or the inner court, is the grandeſt ſtructure of the kind in the kingdom; being 190 feet in length, forty in breadth, and thirty-eight in height within. It is aſcended by a ſpacious ſtair-caſe, wainſcotted with cedar, the ſteps of black marble; and entering by folding doors at the north end, it appears inexpreſſibly beautiful: the floor is of marble. The ſpacious claſſes, which are thirty in number, are of oak, which time has reduced to the colour of cedar: and the great number of ſcarce and valuable books and manuſcripts they contain richly deſerve attention. This library, which for the elegance, taſte, and judgment diſ-

played in the inſide, may juſtly be ſtyled the firſt gallery in Europe, is adorned on the outſide with pilaſters, carved chapiters, and architraves; and a ſtone baluſtrade runs round the top of it. Over the eaſt front are four fine ſtatues, repreſenting Divinity, Law, Phyſic, and Mathematics, done by Mr. Caius Gabriel Cibber, (father of Colley Cibber the poet laureat.) All the upper parts of the arches are filled up. Under the library is a ſpacious piazza of equal dimenſions, out of which open three gates of wrought iron towards the river; over which is a way to the walks by a fine ſtone bridge of three arches. The *walks* are about the third part of a mile in circumference, having the river and elegant buildings on the eaſt, and corn fields and an open country on the weſt. There is a fine viſta through the lofty limes of the middle walk; and on the north and ſouth are ſhady rows of horſe-chefnuts and limes, which make the whole very delightful, and much frequented both at noon-day and evening. Theſe walks, which, together with thoſe of Saint John's, Clare Hall, and King's Colleges, ſkirt the whole weſt ſide of the town, afford the moſt advantageous view of the principal buildings. There are few places in Europe where ſo many elegant edifices may be taken into the eye at once, on one ſide, and a rural landſcape of native ſimplicity on the other.

Viſitor. The biſhop of Ely.

EMANUEL COLLEGE. This college was founded by Sir Walter Mildmay, of Chelmsford, in Eſſex, chancellor of the duchy of Lancaſter, and of the exchequer; a man, according to Camden and others, of uncommon merit in his public and private character, who obtained a licence, or charter of incorporation, from queen Elizabeth. He built the college upon the ſite of the Dominican convent of black preaching friars, and endowed it for the maintenance of a maſter, three fellows, and four ſcholars. On the 29th of September, 1784, and juſt 200 years ſince the foundation of the college, the ſociety, according to ancient cuſtom, concluded the century with a grand jubilee. Some of the principal ſubſequent benefactors were, queen Elizabeth; Henry, earl of Huntington; Sir Francis Haſtings; Sir Robert Jermyn; Sir Francis Walſingham, ſecretary of ſtate; Sir Henry Killigrew; Sir Wolſon Dixie, founder of two fellowſhips and two ſcholarſhips; Sir John Hart; Sir Samuel Leonard; Sir Thomas Skinner; Edward Leeds, LL.D.; Alderman Radcliffe; John Morley; Dr. Richardſon; Sir Henry Mildmay; Lady Grace Mildmay, who gave four exhibitions; Dr. Holbeck, who founded a chatechiſtical lecture in divinity, and a lecture upon eccleſiaſtical hiſtory; Dr. Sudbury, dean of Durham, who, beſides other benefactions, founded a Greek lecture, and gave 6 *l.* per ann. to purchaſe a piece of plate to be beſtowed

beſtowed upon the moſt pious and beſt learned of the commencing bachelors of arts in each year; Lady Sadler, foundreſs of the algebra lecture; Dr. Whichcot, who, beſides other benefactions to the college, founded four exhibitions; Dr. Branthwaite, founder of two ſcholarſhips; Francis Aſhe, Eſq. who beſides ſettling a fund for buying books for the library, and other uſes of the college, founded ten exhibitions, giving a preference to his own relations, then to the ſchools of Derby and Aſhby-de-la-Zouch, and, for want of ſuch, to clergymen's ſons; archbiſhop Sancroft, who contributed great ſums towards building the chapel and other uſes, and gave all his books to the library; Mr. Hobbs, founder of two exhibitions; Mr. Gillingham, founder of a fellowſhip; Mr. Robert Johnſon, archdeacon of Leiceſter, founder of four exhibitions, with a preference to ſons of godly miniſters, and ſuch as have been brought up in the public ſchools of Oakham or Uppingham, in Rutlandſhire; Mrs. Anne Hunt, foundreſs of two exhibitions for ſcholars born in the county of Suffolk; Mr. Walter Richards, founder of two exhibitions; Mr. Wells, rector of Thurning, who gave an exhibition; Nicholas Aſpinal, who founded an exhibition, with a preference to the ſchool of Clithew in Lancaſhire, and then to the free ſchool of Bedford; Dr. Thorpe, prebendary of Canterbury, who ſettled five exhibitions, deſigned chiefly for bachelors of arts, with ſome preference to the ſons of orthodox miniſters of the church of England, and of the dioceſe of Canterbury, and ſuch as have been brought up in the King's ſchool there; John Brown, B. D. rector of Wallington, in Hertfordſhire, who, in the year 1736, left upwards of 2000 *l.* for the augmentation of the maſterſhip, and four of the fellowſhips, and for the ſettling two Greek ſcholarſhips, with a preference to the King's ſchool in Canterbury, and then to any ſchool in Kent: he alſo gave 50 *l.* and part of his books to the library. To theſe might be added the late earls of Weſtmoreland, with many others, who generouſly contributed to the expences of the new building, &c.

Emanuel College is ſituate on the ſouth-eaſt of the town, from whence there is a very extenſive proſpect of the adjacent country. On the weſt, next the ſtreet, is erected a handſome building, which makes the principal court very beautiful, having on the ſouth an elegant uniform ſtone building, adorned with a baluſtrade and parapet; and oppoſite to it, on the north, the hall, combination room, and maſter's lodge; on the eaſt is a fine cloiſter with thirteen arches, and an handſome gallery over it, well furniſhed and adorned with the portraits of the founder, ſeveral of the benefactors, and former members of the

college. In the middle of the cloiſter is the entrance into the chapel.

The *Chapel*, including the ante-chapel, is eighty-four feet long, thirty broad, and twenty-ſeven high, and is extremely well adorned and furniſhed. The altar-piece is a very grand painting of the prodigal ſon, by Ammiconi: the floor is marble, and the ceiling ſtucco. There is a neat organ, and a gallery for the maſter's family. In the middle of the chapel hangs a curious glaſs chandelier, which has a beautiful appearance when lighted.

The *Hall* is one of the moſt elegant in the univerſity.

The combination-room adjoins to the hall, and is neatly fitted up.

The *Library* is a good room, and contains a large collection of well-choſen books; among which is Tully's Epiſtles by Fauſt, with a beautiful illumination of Henry VIII. when a boy (whoſe book it was), and of his preceptor.

The *Gardens* are extenſive and pleaſant, with a bowling green and cold bath; over which is a neat brick-building, faſhed in front, containing a commodious little room to dreſs in. The curious take notice of a fine young cedar tree in this garden.

The *Society* conſiſts of a maſter, fifteen fellowſhips, fifty ſcholarſhips, ten ſizars' places, and thirty-ſeven exhibitions.

SIDNEY SUSSEX COLLEGE. The foundreſs of this college was the lady Frances Sidney, counteſs of Suſſex, daughter of William Sidney, knighted at the battle of Flodden Field, and ſteward of the houſehold to Edward VI.; ſiſter to Sir Henry Sidney, knight of the garter, and lord preſident of Wales; aunt of Sir Philip Sidney, and widow to Thomas Ratcliffe, earl of Suſſex. Dying without iſſue, ſhe left 5000 *l.* and other legacies to found this college, by the name of Sidney Suſſex College. But if her bequeſt ſhould not be ſufficient for the purpoſe, then it ſhould go towards the improvement and extenſion of Clare Hall. Henry, earl of Kent, and John Lord Harrington, baron of Exton, executors to the foundreſs, at firſt founded ten fellowſhips and twenty ſcholarſhips; but, after building the college, and other expences, they found that the remainder of her legacy would not be a ſufficient maintenance for ſo many fellows as were at firſt deſigned; and thereupon they reduced the ten fellowſhips to ſeven. Edward, the firſt lord Montague of Boughton, founded three ſcholarſhips; which Edward, his ſon and ſucceſſor, deſired might be reduced to two. Sir John Hart, citizen of London, founded two fellowſhips and four ſcholarſhips. Sir Francis Clerke, of Houghton Conqueſt, in Bedfordſhire, founded four fellowſhips and eight ſcholarſhips,

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erected the building in the ſecond court, and augmented the income of the foundation-ſcholarſhips. Mr. Peter Blundell, of Tiverton, clothier, founded two fellowſhips and two ſcholarſhips. Mr. Leonard Smith, citizen of London, founded one fellowſhip and one ſcholarſhip. Paul Micklewaite, D.D. and ſome time fellow, founded two ſcholarſhips. Mr. Downham Yeomans, of Cambridge, founded three ſcholarſhips. Mr. Samuel Taylor Dudley founded the mathematical lecture. Robert Johnſon, D.D. archdeacon of Leiceſter, founded four exhibitions. Francis Comber, Eſq. gave ſome exhibitions to be enjoyed by his relations, and their deſcendants that might be members of the college. Several of the fellowſhips and ſcholarſhips were augmented by the noble benefaction bequeathed by Sir John Brereton. Two exhibitions, of 12 *l.* per ann. each, were given by Mr. William Bearcroft, for clergymen's orphans. The late maſter, Dr. Francis Sawyer Parris, bequeathed to the college his large and valuable library, together with the ſum of 600 *l.*

They have, therefore, ſeven foundation-fellowſhips, and ten bye-foundation-fellowſhips; twenty foundation-ſcholarſhips, and twenty-four bye-foundation-ſcholarſhips; beſide the mathematical lecture and ſeveral exhibitions.

The college is ſituate on the eaſt ſide of Bridge-ſtreet, and conſiſts of two courts built of brick.

The *Chapel* has been lately re-built in an elegant manner, and, including the ante-chapel, is fifty-ſeven feet long and twenty-four broad.

The *Hall* is about ſixty feet long, twenty-ſeven broad, and proportionably high; and is one of the moſt elegant rooms of the kind in the univerſity. There is a beautiful bow window near the upper end, and a handſome gallery for muſic, ſupported by pillars, which forms a grand veſtibule at the entrance. The ceiling and walls are neatly ornamented with fret work; and the reſt of the room, with the ſcreens, are anſwerable to it.

The *Library* is over part of the maſter's lodge and the ante-chapel, and is well furniſhed with books. There is a human ſkull perfectly petrified, or rather incruſted with a hard ſand-ſtone, except the teeth, which are white, hard, and ſound, and not at all changed. It was found in the iſland of Crete, about ten yards below the ſurface, and brought into England in 1627. It was eſteemed ſo great a curioſity, that Charles I. was deſirous of ſeeing it; and accordingly it was ſent up to the famous Dr. Harvey by Dr. Ward, then maſter of the college, for his majeſty's inſpection. It is now broken, and ſome of it gone.

The *Maſter's Lodge* is well fitted up and furniſhed with portraits; and the fellows have a pleaſant garden, with a good and ſpacious bowling-green.

PRIZES. The following prizes, for the promotion of learning by means of emulation, have been eſtabliſhed by various noble and public-ſpirited perſons.

In 1751, the duke of Newcaſtle, chancellor of the univerſity, eſtabliſhed a premium of two gold medals, value ten guineas each, to be given to two perſons, who, after having the academical honours of ſenior optime conferred upon them, ſhall be found, after a ſecond examination before certain perſons appointed by his grace, to excel in claſſical learning. This premium is ſtill continued by the duke of Grafton, the preſent chancellor of the univerſity.

The Hon. Mr. Finch, and the Hon. Mr. Townſhend, after the example of the chancellor, gave yearly two prizes of fifteen guineas each, to two ſenior bachelors of arts, and the like to two middle bachelors, who ſhall compoſe the beſt exerciſes in Latin proſe, which are to be read publicly by them, on a day to be appointed near the commencement by the vice-chancellor. Each candidate ſends his exerciſe privately, and without his name, and not in his own hand, but reviſed and pointed by himſelf, to the vice-chancellor, with ſome Latin verſe upon it; and he, at the ſame time, ſends a paper ſealed up with the ſame Latin verſe on the outſide; which paper incloſes another paper folded up, with the candidate's name written within. The papers, containing the names of thoſe candidates who do not ſucceed, are deſtroyed unopened; by which ſecrecy, the modeſty of thoſe who might otherwiſe be diſtreſſed by a repulſe is effectually conſulted. Theſe prizes have alſo been continued by the members of parliament for the univerſity.

Mr. Seaton, by a clauſe in his will, dated October 8, 1738, gave his Kiſſinbury eſtate to the Univerſity of Cambridge for ever: the rents of which ſhould be diſpoſed of yearly by the vice-chancellor, for the time being, as he, the vice-chancellor, the maſter of Clare Hall, and the Greek profeſſor for the time being, or any two of them ſhould agree. Theſe three perſons were to give out a ſubject; which, for the firſt year, ſhould be one of the perfections or attributes of the Supreme Being; and ſo the ſucceeding years, till the ſubject was exhauſted; and afterwards the ſubject ſhould be either Death, Judgment, Heaven, Hell, Purity of Heart, &c. or whatever elſe might be judged by the vice-chancellor and other two perſons to be more conducive to the honour of the Supreme Being, and recommendation of virtue. And that they ſhould yearly diſpoſe of the rent of the above eſtate to that maſter of arts, whoſe poem on the ſubject

given ſhould be beſt approved by them. Which poem was always ordained to be in Engliſh, and to be printed; the expence of which ſhould be deducted out of the product of the eſtate, and the reſidue given as a reward for the compoſer of the poem, ode, or copy of verſes. The eſtate now produces about 16*l.* per ann.

The late reverend and learned Dr. Robert Smith, F. R. S. maſter of Trinity College, bequeathed, by will, two annual premiums of 25*l.* each, to thoſe junior bachelors of arts who ſhall appear, on examination, to be the beſt proficients in mathematics and natural philoſophy.

The late Sir William Browne, Knt. M.D. by a clauſe in his will, directed his executors to ſend to the vice-chancellor annually two gold medals, each of five guineas value, to be given by him at the commencement to two under-graduates, one of whom ſhall deliver the beſt Greek ode in imitation of Sappho, the other the beſt Latin ode in imitation of Horace. And by a clauſe in his codicil, he bequeathed a third gold medal, of equal value, to be given to the under-graduate who ſhall produce the beſt Greek epigram after the model of Anthologia, and the beſt Latin epigram after the model of Martial. Sir William Browne alſo gave an annual rent charge of 20*l.* for founding a claſſical ſcholarſhip: the ſcholar elected to remove to Peterhouſe; and, in caſe of failure of iſſue from his next heir, he demiſed his whole real eſtate to the univerſity, for founding two phyſic fellowſhips, and further encouraging claſſical learning.

The late John Norris, Eſq. of Witton, in Norfolk, by will, dated September 22, 1768, founded a new divinity profeſſorſhip, with a ſalary of 105*l.* per ann.; and the Rev. John Hey, D.D. of Sidney College, was elected the firſt Norriſian profeſſor, May 1, 1780. He alſo bequeathed a premium of 12*l.* to the author of the beſt proſe Engliſh eſſay on a ſacred ſubject: 7*l.* 4*s.* of the aforeſaid 12*l.* to be expended upon a gold medal; one ſide repreſenting the New Teſtament and the Croſs, with this inſcription round it, *the wiſdom of God unto Salvation*; the reverſe, the Reſurrection, with the inſcription *death is ſwallowed up in victory*; upon the edge, where the milling of our current coin is expreſſed, theſe words, *the Norriſian Prize*; and, if room were left, the name of the ſucceſsful candidate, and the date of the year. The reſidue of the 12*l.* viz. 4*l.* 16*s.* to be diſpoſed of in books; which are to be, the Bible, biſhop Sherlock's Diſcourſes, 4 vols. Leland againſt the Deiſtical Writers, and Pearſon on the Creed; upon the left hand cover of each book ſhall be paſted a copper-plate impreſſion of one of the ſides of the medal: and directed the ſum of 18*s.* to be laid out

in books, *viz.* The New Teſtament, and The great Importance of a Religious Life, to be annually given to the priſoners who can read.

John lord Craven gave 50 *l.* per annum to two ſcholars, the beſt proficients in claſſical learning, &c. The electors are, the vice-chancellor, the five regius profeſſors, and the orator.

William Battie, M. D. left an eſtate of upwards of 20 *l.* per annum, to one ſcholar, on a ſimilar plan.

William Worts, Eſq. formerly eſquire-beadel of the univerſity, gave two penſions of 100 *l.* per annum each, to two travelling bachelors of arts.

The Rev. John Hulſe, by his will, dated 21ſt July, 1777, after the lapſe of a great number of annuities, and the payment of ſeveral legacies and donations, bequeathed to the univerſity a yearly revenue of about 150*l.* for preaching and publiſhing twenty ſermons, yearly, in vindication of the general authority, and particular evidences of Chriſtianity; and an annuity of equal value to the former, for the eſtabliſhment of a writer, who is to publiſh a book every year, tending to the confirmation of the doctrines, or the removal of ſome difficulties in Chriſtianity. The writer is to be called the *Chriſtian Advocate.* The remaining produce of the eſtate, out of which theſe ſtipends are to be paid, is to be appropriated to the founding of two ſcholarſhips in St. John's, each of which will be 40 *l.* per annum. The vice-chancellor for the time being, and the heads of Trinity and St. John's, are to have the nomination in all theſe appointments.

Degrees. The ſtudents, according to their ſtanding and proficiency in learning, are entitled to the degrees of bachelor and maſter of arts, bachelor and doctor in divinity, phyſic, and law. The time required by the ſtatutes for ſtudying in the univerſity, before each can be qualified for taking the ſaid degrees, is three years for a bachelor, and about four years more for a maſter of arts; ſeven years after that he may commence bachelor of divinity, and then five years more are required to take the degree of doctor in divinity. In law, a ſtudent may commence bachelor after ſix years, and in phyſic after five years ſtanding: both may be proctors at the end of five years more. The proper time for conferring theſe degrees is called the commencement, which is always the firſt Tueſday in July, when the maſters of arts, and doctors of all faculties, complete their degrees reſpectively. The examination for the degree of bachelor of arts uſually begins on the Monday ſe'nnight after the Epiphany, and the degree is completed on the ſecond tripos-day next following. Perſons are commonly admitted to the degree of bachelors in divinity on the 11th of June. The nobi-

lity,

lity, which includes baronets, as ſuch, are entitled to degrees without waiting the ſtatutable time. In the year 1786, ſome diſputes having aroſe concerning the practice of conferring degrees in right of nobility, the ſtatutes were examined, and it was determined that the following perſons were entitled to honorary degrees: *viz.* 1. Privy-counſellors.—2. Biſhops.—3. Noblemen—Dukes, Marquiſſes, Earls, Viſcounts, Barons.—4. Sons of Noblemen.—5. Perſons related to the king by conſanguinity or affinity, provided they be alſo honourable.—6. The eldeſt ſons of ſuch perſons.—7. Baronets.—8. Knights. The two laſt to the degree of M. A. only.

SENATE. The Senate is compoſed of all the doctors and maſters of arts in the univerſity, and is divided into two bodies or houſes. The firſt conſiſts of regents, or thoſe who have not been maſters of arts five years: they are alſo called white-hoods, from the hoods of their official dreſſes being lined with white ſilk. The ſecond, of non-regents, or thoſe who have taken the degree of maſter upwards of five years, but have not advanced to the degree of doctor; theſe are called black-hoods for a ſimilar reaſon. The doctors under two years ſtanding vote ſolely in the regent-houſe; but all others, with the public orator, may vote in which houſe they pleaſe; and either houſe is competent to reject a queſtion. In the ſenate-houſe the election of all officers takes place; the appointments of the magiſtrates, the admiſſion to degrees, and all other important buſineſs of the univerſity. No language but Latin is permitted to be ſpoken at any official meeting in the ſenate-houſe. Some queſtions are determined by the body collective, as the choice of members of parliament. At the election in 1790, the number of members who voted was 684; abſent, or did not vote, 181; in all 865. The privilege of ſending members to parliament was firſt granted to the univerſity by James I. in 1604.

TERMS. The following is an invariable rule for the beginning and ending of the Cambridge Terms, without any exception of Sundays or holidays.

Michaelmas Term begins on the 10th of October, and ends on the 16th of December.

Lent Term begins on the 13th of January, and ends on the Friday before Palm Sunday.

Trinity Term, or (as it is more commonly called), *May Term*, begins on the Wedneſday after Eaſter week, and ends on the Friday after the commencement.

SCHOOLS. After the univerſities, it may be proper to mention a few of the public ſchools for the education of youth, preparatory to their admiſſion at Oxford or Cambridge, which have

have the benefit of a foundation. Some of theſe ſchools are, without impropriety, termed colleges; but they are best diſtinguiſhed from thoſe which collectively form the univerſities, by adhering ſtrictly to their title; nor is there any danger, while they retain their preſent eminence, that they ſhould be confounded with thoſe inferior undertakings which are eſtabliſhed in all parts of the kingdom for reception of thoſe to whom a finiſhed claſſical education is not neceſſary.

ETON. The College of Eton was founded by Henry VI. in the 19th year of his reign, anno 1440, for a provoſt, ten prieſts, four clerks, ſix choriſters, twenty-five poor grammar ſcholars, and twenty-five poor men. Henry Sever was the firſt provoſt; his ſucceſſor was William Waynfleet, founder of Magdalen College, in Oxford. This foundation was particularly excepted in the act for the diſſolution of colleges and chantries, in the reign of Edward VI. Its eſtabliſhment, however, has been ſomewhat altered, and it conſiſts now of a provoſt, ſeven fellows, two ſchool-maſters, two conducts, ſeven clerks, ſeventy ſcholars, and ten choriſters, beſides inferior officers and ſervants.

The School is divided into upper and lower, and each of them into three claſſes. Each ſchool has one maſter, and each maſter has two aſſiſtants or uſhers. None are admitted into the upper ſchool till they can make Latin verſes, and have attained a tolerable knowledge of Greek. In the lower ſchool children are admitted very young, to be initiated in ſchool learning.

Henry VI. alſo founded King's College in Cambridge, and intended Eton School to be a ſeminary to ſupply it with ſcholars and fellows, for which purpoſe there is an annual election of ſcholars for the univerſity, made in July or Auguſt, in this manner:—King's College in Cambridge deputes its provoſt, and two fellows, ſtiled a ſenior and junior profeſſor, who being joined by the provoſt, vice-provoſt, and head of Eton College, examine the ſcholars in the upper claſs in the ſeveral parts of their learning, and enter twelve, whom they find duly qualified, in the roll or nomination for the univerſity, to be removed from Eton, as vacancies happen at King's College, and according to ſeniority on the roll of election. The ſcholar admitted at King's purſues his ſtudies there for three years, and then is entitled to a fellowſhip upon that foundation. The average number of vacancies is about nine in two years: at nineteen years of age the ſcholars are ſuperannuated. Eton ſends two ſcholars to Merton College, in Oxford, where they are denominated poſt-maſters, and has a few exhibitions of 21 guineas each for its ſuperannuated ſcholars, towards whoſe

aſſiſtance

aſſiſtance Mr. Chamberlayne, a late fellow, has bequeathed an eſtate of 80 *l.* per annum after the death of his widow. The independent ſcholars at Eton, commonly called *Oppidans*, are very numerous, this ſchool having been long ranked among the firſt public ſeminaries in this or any other country. The average number of independent ſcholars, for ſome years paſt, has been from 300 to 350. When Dr. Barnard was maſter, under whom the ſchool was more flouriſhing, perhaps, than at any other period, the number at one time exceeded 520.

A curious ancient cuſtom of the proceſſion of the ſcholars *ad montem* is deſerving of notice. This proceſſion is made every third year, on Whit Tueſday, to a *tumulus* near the Bath road, which has acquired the name of Salt Hill, by which alſo the neighbouring inns have been long known. The chief object of the celebration, is to collect money for *ſalt*, as the phraſe is, from all perſons preſent, and it is exacted even from paſſengers travelling the road. The ſcholars who collect the money are called Salt-bearers, and are dreſſed in rich ſilk habits. Tickets, inſcribed with ſome motto, by way of paſs-word, are given to ſuch perſons as have already paid for *ſalt*, as a ſecurity from any further demands. This ceremony has been frequently honoured with the preſence of his majeſty and the royal family, whoſe liberal contributions, added to thoſe of many of the nobility and others, who have been educated at Eton, and purpoſely attend the meeting, have ſo far augmented the collection, that it has been known to amount to more than 800 *l.* The ſum ſo collected is given to the ſenior ſcholar who is going off to Cambridge, for his ſupport at the univerſity. It would be in vain, perhaps, to endeavour to trace the origin of all the circumſtances of this ſingular cuſtom, particularly that of collecting money for *ſalt*, which has been in uſe from time immemorial. The proceſſion itſelf ſeems to have been coeval with the foundation of the college, and it has been conjectured, with much probability, that it was that of the *bairn* or *boy*-biſhop, a mock dignity uſed before the Reformation, and which laſted till Innocent's day; during the intermediate time the boy performed various epiſcopal functions, and if it happened that he died before it was expired, he was buried with the ſame ceremonials which were uſed at the funeral of a biſhop. It is ſaid originally to have taken place on the 6th of December, the feſtival of St. Nicholas, the patron of children, being the day on which it was cuſtomary at Saliſbury, and in other places where the ceremony was obſerved, to elect the *boy*-biſhop from among the children belonging to the cathedral. In the voluminous collections relating to antiquities, bequeathed by Mr. Cole, (who was himſelf of Eton and King's College,) to the Britiſh Muſeum,

Muſeum, is a note, in which it is aſſerted, that the ceremony of the *bairn* or *boy*-biſhop, was to be obſerved by charter; and that Geffrey Blythe, biſhop of Litchfield, who died in 1530, bequeathed ſeveral ornaments to King's College and Eton, for the dreſs of the *bairn*-biſhop. From whence the induſtrious antiquary procured this information, which, if correct, would end all conjecture on the ſubject, does not appear. It is not diſcovered that there are any documents in ſupport of it at King's College or at Eton, and the prerogative court at Canterbury, as well as the regiſtries of the dioceſes of London, Cheſter, and Litchfield, where alone there is any probability of its being regiſtered, have been ſearched in vain for biſhop Blythe's will. Within the memory of perſons now living, it was a part of the ceremony at the *montem*, that a boy dreſſed in a clerical habit, with a wig, ſhould read prayers. The cuſtom of hunting a ram, by the Eton ſcholars, on Saturday in the election week, ſuppoſed to have been an ancient tenure, was aboliſhed by the late provoſt, Dr. Cooke.

Eton College conſiſts of two quadrangles. In the firſt is the ſchool, the chapel, and lodgings for the maſters and ſcholars. The other is occupied by the library, the provoſt's lodgings, and the apartments of the fellows. The *Chapel*, as far as relates to its external appearance, is a very handſome Gothic ſtructure; the inſide has none of that ornamental architecture, ſo much admired in King's College chapel at Cambridge, to which this has ſometimes been compared, but is quite plain, and has been much diſfigured by ſome injudicious alterations, which were made in the beginning of the laſt century, when ſeveral of the old monuments were removed, and others concealed behind the wainſcot then placed at the eaſt end, by which alſo was hid a Gothic altar-piece of ſtone enriched with niches. The whole length of the chapel is 175 feet, including the ante-chapel, which is 62 feet.

The *Library* of Eton College contains a large and valuable collection of books, having been from time to time enriched by munificent bequeſts, particularly by the library of Dr. Waddington, biſhop of Cheſter, conſiſting chiefly of divinity; that of Mr. Mann, maſter of the Charter-Houſe; that of Richard Topham, Eſq. formerly keeper of his Majeſty's Records in the Tower, chiefly remarkable for its fine edition of the claſſics; and that of the late Anthony Storer, Eſq. containing a great number of early printed and rare books in various departments of literature, a fine ſet of Aldus's, and many ſcarce editions of the claſſics, particularly a very rare copy of Macrobius, and a large collection of engraved portraits and other valuable prints, excluſive of what had been bound up at great expence, with various

rious hiſtorical and topographical works, which formed part of his library. Mr. Topham's collection compriſes alſo ſome very valuable engravings, drawings by the old maſters, medals, &c. Mr. Hetherington alſo bequeathed the ſum of 500 *l.* to be expended in books.

WESTMINSTER. The School of Weſtminſter was founded by queen Elizabeth in 1560, for the education of forty boys, denominated the Queen's Scholars; who are taught in the beſt manner preparatory to the univerſity. It is ſituated within the walls of the abbey, and does not occupy an entire building, the lower ſtory being uſed for other purpoſes. It is ſeparated into two diviſions or ſchools, compriſing ſeven forms or claſſes. Beſides the ſcholars on the foundation, many of the nobility and gentry ſend their ſons to Weſtminſter for inſtruction, ſo that this eſtabliſhment vies with Eton in celebrity and reſpectability. They have an upper and an under maſter, with numerous aſſiſtants. Of theſe maſters many have been eminent in the walks of literature, but none in this, or any other ſeminary ſo celebrated as Dr. Buſby. His ſeverity of diſcipline forms the ſubject of various facetious anecdotes, and has made his name proverbial; but while England records with pride the names of her learned and able men, juſtice will always be done to the ability, induſtry, and diſcernment of Buſby, who diſcovered with infinite ſagacity the peculiar talents of his pupils, and with unremitting aſſiduity urged them forward in thoſe paths where they were moſt likely to meet with fame and advantage.

WINCHESTER. The ſchool at Wincheſter was founded by that liberal patron of learning, William of Wickham, who laid the firſt ſtone in 1387, and finiſhed it in 1393, with endowments for a warden, ſeventy ſcholars, ten fellows, or perpetual chaplains, two maſters, ſeventy ſcholars, three chaplains, three clerks, one organiſt, ſixteen choriſters, and other ſtatutable ſervants, with exhibitions to New College, Oxford. This ſchool alſo receives private ſcholars, and maintains a high character.

HARROW. The Free School at Harrow, which now ranks among the firſt public ſeminaries in the kingdom, was founded in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, by John Lyon, a wealthy yeoman of Preſton, who had previouſly for many years appropriated 20 marks per ann. to teaching poor children. In 1590, two years before his death, he drew up a ſet of ſtatutes for the ſchool, with full inſtructions for the diſpoſal of the eſtates which he intended to appropriate to various charitable uſes. In theſe papers he mentions his intention of building a ſchool-houſe, with habitations for the maſter and uſher, and directs the ſum of 300 *l.* to be expended for that purpoſe within three years after his deceaſe, provided he ſhould die without having completed this intention. The ſtatutes are drawn up with much attention

attention and preciſion, the number of forms are ſpecified; the books and exerciſes for each form are chalked out; the mode of correction ſettled; the hours of attending ſchool; the vacations and play-days, and the nature of the ſcholars' amuſements, which are confined to "driving a top, toſſing a hand-ball, running, and ſhooting." The laſt mentioned diverſion was in a manner inſiſted upon by the founder, who required all parents to furniſh their children with "bowſtrings, ſhafts and breaſters, "to exerciſe ſhooting." It was cuſtomary, till within the laſt thirty years, for the ſcholars of Harrow to have a public exhibition of archery annually on the 4th of Auguſt, when they ſhot for a ſilver arrow. Since this cuſtom has been laid aſide, public ſpeeches have been exhibited. The founder directs, that a competent number of poor ſcholars ſhall be educated freely, but allows the maſter to take other children for his profit, without any other limitation than the diſcretion of the governors; he adds a ſingular clauſe, that the maſter ſhall not receive any girls into the ſchool. The ſum of 20*l.* was allotted for the ſupport of four exhibitioners, two in Gonville and Caius College at Cambridge, the others at any college at Oxford. In chooſing the exhibitioners, the preference is to be given to his own kin, to natives of Harrow, "and ſuch as are moſt meete for towardneſs, poverty, or painfulneſs." Theſe exhibitions, which are held for eight years, have been raiſed, in conſequence of the improved value of the eſtates, to 20*l.* per annum each. The governors were to be ſix in number, to have a common ſeal, to ſuperintend the management of the Founder's eſtates, to elect the ſchool-maſter and uſher, the ſurveyors, &c.; and, jointly with the maſter, to make any diſcretionary alterations for the advantage of the ſchool. The reputation of Harrow School was raiſed to a great height by Dr. Thackeray and Dr. Sumner, particularly the latter, who was an excellent claſſical ſcholar, and celebrated for the elegance of his Latin compoſitions; under him many of the preſent nobility, and ſome of the moſt diſtinguiſhed characters of the age for genius and learning, received their education. The ſchool ſtill keeps its reputation and its numbers, which are uſually upon an average about 150.

CHARTER HOUSE. The name of this eſtabliſhment is derived, by an eaſy and evident corruption, from Chartreuſe, the place in which it is ſituated having been a convent of Carthuſian Monks, founded near Smithfield-bars, London, on a ſpot which ſerved for the ſepulture of 50,000 perſons who died of the plague in 1372. This eſtabliſhment was ſeized on by the griping rapacity of Henry VIII., and the monks, who appear to have been benevolent and blameleſs, were treated with great indignity

dignity and cruelty. Henry granted this firſt eſtate to John Brydges and Thomas Hale, and three years afterwards to Sir Edward North, who made compenſation to the former grantees by a rent charge of 10*l.* per annum. From him it paſſed through various hands, until, in the reign of Elizabeth, it belonged to the Duke of Norfolk, who was attainted of high treaſon, but the queen reſtored the eſtate to his ſon, who was in high eſtimation with James I. In the reign of this monarch aroſe one of thoſe extraordinary men, who ſhew that it is poſſible for a virtuous mind to reſiſt all the corrupt propenſities ariſing from unbounded wealth and uninterrupted ſucceſs. This individual was Thomas Sutton, of an ancient family in Lincolnſhire, who having originally a good inheritance, and having improved his property till it exceeded 80,000*l.* a vaſt ſum in thoſe days, diſtinguiſhed his declining years by acts of benevolence and charity. On the 9th of May 1611, he purchaſed of the heirs of the Duke of Norfolk the Charter-Houſe with its appurtenances for 13,000*l.* and on the 22d of June in the ſame year, obtained letters patent, with a licence in mortmain, to found an hoſpital and free ſchool there. This admirable charity was perfected under the directions of his will; making a total expence of 20,000*l.*; and the founder left eſtates for its endowment valued at 4,500*l.* per annum. The hoſpital is a comfortable and reſpectable eſtabliſhment for eighty friendleſs, unmarried old men; and although republican rapacity in the days of the rebellion diminiſhed for a time its revenues, the ſame number is ſtill maintained; they are plentifully ſupplied with all neceſſaries, except apparel, in lieu of which they receive a gown and 7*l.* per annum; they reſide in handſome and well furniſhed apartments.

The ſcholars have handſome lodgings, are inſtructed in claſſical and other learning, and ſupplied with all the neceſſaries of life; and the ſtudents at the univerſities have an allowance of 20*l.* per annum each, for the term of eight years. The boys who are incapable of being brought up ſcholars, are put out apprentices, and the ſum of 40*l.* given with each, and there are nine eccleſiaſtical preferments in the patronage of the governors. The governors are enabled, by the patent, to receive charitable donations from any perſon inclined to beſtow them on the hoſpital and free ſchool, the latter to have as many ſcholars as the governors chooſe to admit, to be under the tuition of a maſter and uſher. Their morals and religious conduct are placed, together with that of the penſioners, &c. under the guidance of a preacher. The whole inſtitution is governed, under certain reſtrictions, by a maſter, who is always a governor. The governors are ſixteen in number, and include the King and Queen, the

the Lord Chancellor, many of the higheſt nobility and firſt officers of ſtate.

ST. PAUL'S SCHOOL. That there was a very ancient eſtabliſhment of a ſchool at St. Paul's, London, is manifeſt by the charter of Richard, biſhop of London, in the time of Henry I. who granted to one Hugh, the ſchool-maſter, and his ſucceſſors in that employment, the habitation of Durandus at the corner of the turret, (that is, the *clochier*, or bell tower), where William, dean of St. Paul's, had placed him, by his the ſaid biſhop's command; together with the cuſtody of the library belonging to this church. The chancellor of St. Paul's was veſted, not only with the direction of affairs relating to teaching at the church, but was abſolute over the few who taught in London. Henry de Blois, biſhop of Wincheſter, iſſued his mandate, now at St. Paul's, directing that no perſon ſhould preſume to teach within London, without licence from Henry, then maſter, except the maſters of St. Mary-le-Bow aud St. Martin's-le-Grand, under pain of excommunication. The appointments were made by the chancellor, but the dean and chapter only could give the maſter poſſeſſion; who was to be ſober, honeſt, and learned; in ſhort, one whoſe tenor of living would be an example for his ſcholars; a teacher, not only of grammar, but of virtue, "*Eis non ſolum grammatices, ſed etiam virtutis magiſter.*"

Such was the ancient ſchool, dedicated to the honour of St. Paul; and ſuch the foundation on which Dean Colet erected the preſent flouriſhing ſeminary. Eraſmus has afforded a minute account and deſcription of the ſchool, which Dr. Knight tranſlated from the Latin, for his excellent hiſtory of the foundation, as follows: "Upon the death of his father, when, by right of inheritance, he was poſſeſſed of a good ſum of money, leſt the keeping of it ſhould corrupt his mind, and turn it too much toward the world, he laid out a great part of it in building a new ſchool, in the church-yard of St. Paul's; dedicated to the child Jeſus; a magnificent fabrick, to which he added two dwelling-houſes for the two ſeveral maſters, and to them he allotted ample ſalaries, that they might teach a certain number of boys free, and for the ſake of charity. He divided the ſchool into four apartments: the firſt, viz. the porch and entrance, is for the catecumens, or the children to be inſtructed in the principles of religion; where no child is to be admitted but what can read and write. The ſecond apartment is for the lower boys; to be taught by the ſecond maſter, or uſher. The third for the upper forms; under the head maſter. Which two parts of the ſchool are divided by a curtain to be drawn at pleaſure. Over the maſter's chair is an image of the child Jeſus, of admirable work, in the geſture of teaching; whom all the boys,

boys, going and coming, ſalute with a ſhort hymn. And there is a repreſentation of God the Father, ſaying, "Hear ye Him," theſe words being written at my ſuggeſtion. The fourth or laſt apartment, is a little chapel for divine ſervice. The ſchool has no corners or hiding-places, nothing like a cell or cloſet. The boys have their diſtinct forms or benches, one above another. Every form holds ſixteen; and he that is head or captain of each form, has a little kind of deſk, by way of pre-eminence. They are not to admit all boys of courſe; but to chooſe them in according to their parts and capacities."

The wiſe and ſagacious founder ſaw that the greateſt hopes and happineſs of the commonwealth were in the training up of children to good letters and true religion; for which noble purpoſe, he laid out an immenſe ſum of money; and yet he would admit of no one to bear a ſhare in this expence. Some perſon having left a legacy of 100 *l.* ſterling towards the fabrick of the ſchool, Dean Colet perceived a deſign in it; and, by leave of the biſhop, got that money to be laid out upon the veſtments of the church of St. Paul. After he had finiſhed all, he left the perpetual care and over-ſight of the eſtate, and government of it, not to the clergy, not to the biſhops, not to the chapter, not to any great miniſter at court, but amongſt the married laymen; to the Company of Mercers, men of probity and reputation. And when he was aſked the reaſon of ſo committing this truſt, he anſwered to this effect, "That there was no abſolute certainty in human affairs; but, for his part, he found leſs corruption in ſuch a body of citizens than in any other order or degree of mankind."

The worthy dean prefaces his ſtatutes by expreſſing an ardent wiſh, that children ſhould be taught regularity of conduct, and a knowledge of literature. That he might perform his part, he reſolved to found this ſchool of St. Paul's, for one hundred and fifty-three children. He appoints the Company of Mercers patrons, governors, and defenders; and for the governance of the ſtudents, a maſter, a ſur-maſter, and a chaplain, with ſufficient ſalaries, for ever.

The office of high maſter requiring great abilities in its poſſeſſor, he very juſtly defines what are the qualifications neceſſary: "A man whole in body, honeſt, and virtuous; learned in pure Latin and Greek; a man either ſingle or married; a prieſt, with no benefice with cure, or any impediment which might prevent or divert his attention from the duties of his ſituation. Such a man is to be choſen by the Company of Mercers, in the ſchool, during good conduct; which is to be examined into on Candlemas-day, at the ſchool. The Mercers are forbid to permit the maſter's abſence without their licence;

and any diſſenſion between him and the ſur-maſter is to be referred to the ſurveyors being for that year. His lodgings were to conſiſt of the whole ſtory over the hall and chambers, and a little middle chamber in the houſe roof, now called a *garret*, and a gallery, with all the cellar beneath the hall, the kitchen, and buttery. He received his furniture, and his wages were a mark per week, with a gown annually, of four nobles value; but in conſequence of the improved rents of the ſchool eſtates, and in conſideration of the diminiſhed value of money, this, and all the other ſalaries are now greatly increaſed. The maſter was indulged by the doctor with a vacation of thirty days, *conjunctim* or *diviſim*. When ill of an incurable diſeaſe, or far advanced in age, he was to be diſmiſſed with a penſion of 10*l.*; but if he reſigned voluntarily, a twelve month's notice was required. If the maſter had a hope of convaleſcence in illneſs, his ſalary was continued, and the ſur-maſter officiated for him; for which he had a reaſonable compenſation from the high-maſter. Upon his demiſe the ſur-maſter to be choſen in preference to other candidates. The dean beſtowed his houſe at Stepney on the office. The attainments of the ſur-maſter are required by the dean to be equal to thoſe of the high-maſter, and he veſts his appointment in that officer. The ſurveyors attended at the ſchool, when the maſter preſented his aſſiſtant to them, and they jointly charged him to execute his duty faithfully, on pain of diſmiſſion. He lodged in the Old Change, and his ſalary was 6*s.* 8*d.* per week, with a gown like the high-maſter's. He was to dine with him, if convenient; and when decay and age rendered the ſur-maſter unfit for the office, the worthy dean recommended him to the charity of the Company of Mercers. His notice of reſignation was ſix months only. If both maſters were ill of any contagious diſorder, the founder orders the ſchool to be ſhut, and the ſalaries of each continued. Neither of them is permitted by the ſtatutes to enjoy lectureſhips or profeſſorſhips.

The chaplain was to be an honeſt virtuous prieſt, appointed by the Mercers; he was alſo to learn, or if learned, help to teach in the ſchool. The dean requires that the chaplain ſhould have no preferment or other occupation; that he teach the children their catechiſm, and inſtruct them in the articles of the faith and commandments in *Engliſh*. He was to hold his office only during good behaviour, and to have but one vacation in the year, and that not without permiſſion from the ſurveyors; to be clear of all diſeaſes when choſen; but to enjoy his ſalary of 8*l.* during illneſs. His gown was valued at 26*s.* 8*d.*; and he lodged either with the maſter, or in the Old-chain.

The

The dean permits the children admitted to be of any nation, and mentions that they muſt previouſly read, write, and be capable of repeating their catechiſms. The high-maſter is permitted to receive 153 (alluding to the number of fiſh taken by St. Peter); with the trifling ſum of four-pence, admiſſion-money, which he orders to be given to a poor ſcholar who ſwept the ſchool. Each child finds his own candles of wax, for thoſe of tallow are expreſsly rejected.

He directs that one ſcholar ſhall preſide at every form; and that the teaching commence at ſeven in the morning, continue till eleven, recommence at one, and terminate for the day at five; with prayers in the morning, noon, and evening.

The ſtatutes comprize minute directions for the inſtruction of the children, and appoint ſurveyors and a renter, and give to them and ſome other officers their fees and ſalaries; and, finally, dean Colet ſolemnly charges the Company of Mercers to guard and promote the intereſts of the foundation for ever, to the utmoſt of their ability, as they fear the juſt vengeance of God for neglecting them; and to make ſuch other regulations for the governance of the ſchool as time and circumſtances may render neceſſary, with the advice and aſſiſtance of good, lettered, and learned men.

To this valuable ſeminary belong twenty-ſeven exhibitions. The captain of the ſchool leaves it at Eaſter, with an exhibition, which is not confined to any particular college, amounting to 40*l.* per annum for four years, and 50*l.* for three ſucceeding years. This is tenable with any collegiate preferment except a fellowſhip. Two of the exhibitions are for St. John's, Cambridge, at 10*l.* each. The Cambridge Univerſity Calendar ſays, p. 112., under Trinity college, "Five (exhibitions), Mr. Perry, 10*l.* per annum each, to ſcholars from St. Paul's ſchool, London. If the number is incomplete, the 50*l.* is ſhared equally between them." And in page 78, Bene't college, "One 1781, by James Stock, eſq.; patrons, the governors of St. Paul's ſchool: value 30*l.* a year, with the accumulation during a vacancy, except 15*l.* paid to the college, appropriated to a ſtudent at St. Paul's ſchool."

MERCHANT TAYLOR'S SCHOOL. This eſtabliſhment is ſituated on the declivity of a hill on the eaſtern ſide of Suffolk-lane, Thames-ſtreet, London. It is a large plain brick building, with an unornamented front; and was founded by the company whoſe name it bears, in the year 1561. The ſite, called the manor of the Roſe, was purchaſed by the company, aſſiſted with a donation of 500*l.* from Richard Hills, who had ſerved the office of maſter. The ſtatutes of this ſchool ordain, that 300 ſcholars, of which it conſiſted, ſhould be educated on the following

terms,—100 for 5*s.* per quarter, 50 at 2*s.* 6*d.* and the remainder gratis; who were prepared for the univerſity by the ſkill and attention of a maſter and three uſhers. As many eminent and learned men have filled thoſe ſituations, the inſtitution has proſpered during two centuries and a half, and will, in all probability, for ages to come. During the above long period, numbers of uſeful and ornamental members of ſociety have beneſitted their country through the medium of Merchant Taylor's ſchool. The original edifice periſhed, with every houſe in the pariſh, by the fire of 1666, and was rebuilt with them. In deſcribing St. John's college, Oxford, mention was made of the munificence of Sir Thomas White, in providing ſo many fellowſhips for ſcholars educated at Merchant Taylor's.

The above are the principal free-ſchools which ſend ſtudents to either univerſity; but beſides them there are many others founded by general benefactors in all parts of the kingdom, ſome of which alſo ſend ſtudents to Oxford or Cambridge; but all are for the purpoſe of imparting the principles of uſeful education. Only to enumerate theſe would be ſwelling this work with an uſeleſs catalogue, while even a moderate commemoration of the various founders and benefactors would extend beyond all reaſonable bounds.

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL. But while a general enumeration of free-ſchools is avoided, it would be unjuſtifiable to paſs over that of *Chriſt's Hoſpital*, commonly called the *Blue-coat-ſchool*, which, for its antiquity, extent, and high character, demands eſpecial notice.

This excellent foundation owes its eſtabliſhment to the piety and virtue of that ornament of the Britiſh throne, Edward VI. With a mind formed for the exerciſe of humanity and charity, this excellent prince had the good fortune to have ſome perſons near him who were inclined to direct and expand that diſpoſition. In this particular inſtance Dr. Ridley, biſhop of London, had the ſingular and enviable felicity of ſuggeſting before the king, in a ſermon preached at Weſtminſter, the imperious demands of poverty upon the attention and commiſeration of the powerful and rich. Thoſe ſuggeſtions made a deep and powerful impreſſion on the youthful ſovereign, who waited with impatience for the time when he could impart in retirement the impulſes of his generous mind to the worthy biſhop. This moment at length arrived. The youthful monarch received the venerable prelate in his cloſet, and with dignified humility inſiſted on his being ſeated and covered, thanked him for his ſermon, and appropriating to himſelf the leading ſubject of it, intreated directions how he ſhould commence the great operations of charity and benevolence.

"Truly,

" Truly, truly," exclaimed the good Ridley, " I could never have thought that excellency to have been in his Grace, but that I beheld and heard it in him." The biſhop adviſed the king to addreſs letters to the corporation of London, announcing his intentions, and ſoliciting their advice, to which he would chearfully add his own. Sir Richard Dobbs, the lord mayor, loſt no time in aſſembling ſuch men as were likely, with Ridley, to forward the work of benevolence. The reſult of their conferences was, a general report to the king on the ſtate and condition of the poor, and the beſt means of relief and reform. They were divided into three claſſes; the poor by impotency, by caſualty, and the thriftleſs poor. For the innocent and fatherleſs, they obſerved they had provided Chriſt's Hoſpital, late the Grey Friars, in London; for the wounded and diſeaſed, the hoſpitals of St. Thomas and St. Bartholomew; and for the idle and vagabond, Bridewell, where they might be chaſtiſed and compelled to labour. Decayed houſeholders, and the poor afflicted with incurable diſeaſes, were to be relieved at their own homes.

" Now after this good order taken," an old author proceeds, " and the citizens, by ſuch means as were deviſed, willing to further the ſame, the report thereof was made to the king's majeſty, and his grace, for the advancement thereof, was not only willing to grant ſuch as ſhould be overſeers and governors of the ſaid houſes, a corporation, and authority for the government of them; but alſo required that he might be accounted as the chief founder and patron thereof. And for the furtherance of the ſaid work, and continual maintenance of the ſame, he, of his mere mercy and goodneſs, granted, that whereas, before, certain lands were given to the maintaining of the houſe of the *Savoy*, founded by Henry VII. for the lodging of pilgrims and ſtrangers, and that the ſame was now made but a lodging for loiterers, vagabonds, and ſtrumpets, that lay all day in the fields, and at night were harboured there, which was rather the maintenance of beggary, than any relief to the poor; he gave the ſame lands, being firſt ſurrendered by the maſter and fellows there, which lands were of the yearly value of 600*l.* unto the city of London, for the maintenance of the foundation aforeſaid. And, for a further relief, a petition being made to the king's majeſty, for a licence to take in mortmain, or otherwiſe, without licence, lands to a certain yearly value; and a ſpace left in the patent for his grace to put in what ſum it would pleaſe him: He, looking on the void place, called for pen and ink, and with his own hand wrote this ſum, 4000 marks by the year; and then ſaid, in the hearing of his council, " Lord, I yield thee moſt hearty thanks, that thou

" haſt given me life, thus long, to finiſh this work to the glory " of thy name." After which foundation eſtabliſhed, he lived not above two days; whoſe life would have been wiſhed equal to the patriarchs, if it had pleaſed God ſo to have prolonged it.

This excellent young monarch made other donations for the benefit of Chriſt's Hoſpital, and many of his ſubjects at different times contributed to its perfection by liberal gifts and bequeſts, and by the erection of walls, rooms, and other neceſſary buildings.

The eſtabliſhment at firſt founded, conſiſted only of a grammar ſchool for boys, and a ſeparate ſchool for girls, where they were taught to read, ſew, and mark. In addition to theſe Charles II. founded a mathematical ſchool and ward, lying on the weſt part of the hoſpital, for the inſtruction of forty boys in the mathematics, eſpecially in that part of it that reſpects navigation, and liberally endowed it with 1000*l.* a year, paid out of the exchequer for ſeven years.

The mayor and corporation of London are directors and promoters of the inſtitution, and the whole community of Great Britain have the valuable privilege and opportunity of carrying on this glorious work. The contributions made during two centuries and a half cannot be particularized, but their effects are thus abſtracted from one of the annual reports. " Children put forth apprentices, and diſcharged from Chriſt's Hoſpital, the year laſt paſt, 194; eleven whereof, being inſtructed in the mathematics and navigation, were placed forth apprentices to commanders of ſhips, out of the mathematical ſchool, founded by his late majeſty Charles II. of bleſſed memory.

Children buried the year laſt paſt, *five.*

Children now under the care and charge of the hoſpital, in London and at Hertford, 1047.

To be admitted on preſentations granted to this time, 140.

The names of all which, as alſo when and whence they were admitted, will appear in the ſaid hoſpital books.

Officers. The government of this excellent charity is committed to ſeveral officers, of whom, and the effects of their care, the following account is given by Mr. Malcolm, in his work called Londinum Redivivum.

The *Preſident* aſſembles the governors to form a general court, whoſe authority is delegated, when he is indiſpoſed, to the treaſurer, for this purpoſe, under the direction of a committee of almoners. His functions are ſimilar to thoſe which belong to every inſtitution governed by ſuch an officer.

The *Governor*, after his appointment, is addreſſed, in full court, in the moſt impreſſive manner, and required to perform the

the duties of the ſtation faithfully and diligently. He is reminded that he is become a diſtributor of the good things of the Almighty to many helpleſs children and others; and that any neglect or miſconduct will prove him a moſt unworthy ſervant, and vitally injure the fair fame of the city of London. He is then ſolemnly required to promiſe, in preſence of the aſſembly, that the work may be brought to perfection, and that the infants committed in ſome degree to his care, ſhall be well provided for, attended, and inſtructed.

The *Treaſurer* receives and pays all ſums appropriated to the relief and comfort of the children within the hoſpital; of which he keeps an account, to be inſpected by the auditors at pleaſure, and to whom he is to produce the caſh remaining in his cuſtody. His annual accounts are made in December, and delivered before February 10. To relieve the fatigues of this office, a *Receiver* is appointed, who acts by the Treaſurer's orders. This officer is expected to render a weekly account of his tranſactions, or oftener if the treaſurer thinks proper, who is empowered to leave any ſum between 100*l.* and 1000*l.* in the receiver's hands for immediate demands, and to deliver money to him as exigencies require. The treaſurer receives, within a month after his appointment, an inventory of every article uſed for the hoſpital in the cuſtody of the clerk of the wardrobe, and of every other officer, which are indented. One part is kept by the treaſurer, the other by the perſon "charged." From thoſe he annually examines each article, acting as the circumſtances ariſe. *Collectors* for the hoſpital are ſubject to his controul, and all the officers, male and female, may be reprimanded by him, or reported to a general court for any great omiſſions. The treaſurer is not to make payments for proviſions, goods delivered, or work done, before the bills are examined and ſigned by three members of the committee; excepting for nurſing of children, penſions, wages, fees, coals, and goods purchaſed by wholeſale, and on which a diſcount is made. The treaſurer and two almoners order all neceſſaries for the children, which are, linen, woollen, ſhoes, ſtockings, caps, girdles, books, bread, meat, beer, butter, cheeſe, milk, coals, &c. Thoſe are to be provided in due time and at reaſonable prices. The treaſurer is beſides to enforce the orders of the houſe, ſummon the ſeveral committees, and to preſide at them in the preſident's abſence; and, laſtly, to give notice to the court of the withdrawing any ſums granted for the maintenance of the houſe, which appear likely to injure it.

When a Governor becomes a *Committee-man*, he receives a charge ſomething ſimilar to that firſt mentioned, and is required to attend when ſummoned by the preſident, treaſurer,

or any five members, eſpecially the monthly committees, "ſual holidays excepted," and thoſe held within ſix weeks after Lady-day and Michaelmas. When preſent, he is to examine the minutes entered by the clerk, reſtore omiſſions, and rectify errors.

A Governor, as *Auditor*, is to inquire as to the capability of gentlemen nominated for governors, whoſe qualifications are ſubmitted to him by a general court. He inſpects the annual general account, and others, and reports to the court the ſtate of the hoſpital.

A Governor, as *Rentor*, when ſummoned, attends all views, and aſſiſts the treaſurer and other governors with his judgment as to the value of eſtates or houſes belonging to the hoſpital, and in making a true report to the next committee; aſſiſts in letting them to tenants at will, or upon leaſe, with due attention to the uſual forms upon ſuch occaſions; and, when expedient, to order repairs, the particulars of which are entered in books, and ſubmitted to the court. He is "to be careful that none of the hoſpital's leaſes are aſſigned to paupers, or other improper perſons, and that no incroachment be made on any part of the hoſpital's eſtates."

A Governor, as *Almoner*, examines the qualifications of children preſented for admiſſion; and is enjoined that none are received contrary to the regulations in force; to be particularly careful that they are legitimate, and that their parents are not perſons in proſperous circumſtances. The almoner examines into the ſtate of the houſes in town and country, and the number of children within them, uſing his beſt endeavours that no more are admitted than can be comfortably ſupported by the certain revenues of the foundation, and commodiouſly lodged at the rate of two in a bed. He attends the viſitations at the ſtated periods of the ſeveral ſchools, to be ſatisfied from his own obſervation, and from the report of the gentlemen who kindly aſſiſt in the examination of the children, that the ſeveral maſters perform the duties preſcribed in their ſeveral charges, and obſerve at convenient periods the general conduct of the children, when under the direction of the officers appointed to ſuperintend them in the intervals between ſchool-hours. Several of the duties of this office have already been noticed; in addition to which, the almoner viſits the Great Hall occaſionally, at the hours of refreſhment, in order to obſerve whether the proviſions are good, properly dreſſed, and clean. The wards in the ſame manner are ſubject to his inſpection, for the purpoſe of ſecuring proper attendance, the furniſhing neceſſaries, and cleanlineſs of rooms, beds, and clothing.

The

The *Almoner* aſſiſts in diſtributing, with benevolence and impartiality, the penſions and gifts in the diſpoſal of the almoners, preferring the moſt deſerving objects; and propoſes to a full committee any regulations conducive to the welfare of this royal, extenſive, and moſt uſeful inſtitution.

The *Phyſician* on a vacancy is appointed by a general court.

The *Surgeon* attends, when ſummoned, all courts and committees, when children are admitted, in order to examine them, that none who have infectious diſorders may be received, or that he may pronounce incurable if diſeaſed. He is required to report any child to the almoners whom he may diſcover ſo ſituated after admiſſion, to viſit the hoſpital daily, to attend thoſe who may meet with ſudden caſualties. This officer and phyſician are forbid to receive any other remuneration than their ſtated ſalaries.

The *Apothecary* is charged to reſide conſtantly in the apartments aſſigned him at the hoſpital, and to attend no perſon whatever who is not an inmate of it. He is not to be abſent one day or one night without good cauſe; nor then, without permiſſion from the treaſurer, or a committee of almoners. He provides, at the expence of the inſtitution, ſuch of the beſt drugs and medicines as the phyſician judges neceſſary to be uſed, with care, and excluſively for the hoſpital, the reſident officers, their families and ſervants; attends the phyſician to the ſick ward, and other inmates; and prepares and adminiſters his preſcriptions; and may act to the beſt of his judgment in that officer's unavoidable abſence, provided his proceedings are ſubmitted to him on his return as ſoon as poſſible.

The *Nurſe* of the ſick ward receives a ſolemn exhortation, exciting her to particular humanity and tenderneſs to the unfortunates committed to her care. She is to receive all children brought to her by the ſeveral nurſes on account of indiſpoſition or lameneſs; to whom ſhe gives her beſt aſſiſtance till ſhe obtains the direction of thoſe who profeſs the art of healing. This perſon is allowed two aſſiſtants, whoſe wages are paid by the houſe; and ſhe is required not to procure any thing for the children in addition to the uſual allowance of the houſe, unleſs directed by the phyſician. She adminiſters medicines preſcribed, and declares their effects; obeys the orders of the *matron* as to the cleanlineſs and comfort of the children; and thoſe of the *ſteward* for their government; and, when it can be done without diſturbing the ſick, or fatiguing the weak, a child is appointed to read a chapter from the bible, and that part of the form of prayer uſed in the houſe which is ſuited to the hour of the day. She prevents the children from playing at cards, dice, unlawful

or

or hurtful games; keeps them calm and quiet, within the wards or adjoining courts, and ſummonſes before her, at uncertain hours, the children under her care, and thoſe who take phyſic, three times daily; calls over their names, which ſhe delivers to the ſteward, noticing the abſentees at each call. This nurſe is never to be from her ſtation without permiſſion. She keeps a book, in which are regiſtered the names of the children, when they came into her care, their leaving it, what their diſorders; and, upon a death occurring, gives notice in writing, immediately, at the counting-houſe. She is beſides to attend divine ſervice at Chriſt Church, in her blue livery, as often as the nature of her ſituation will admit.

The *Clerk* attends in the hoſpital, and enters the minutes of proceedings in different books; one for thoſe of the general court, another for committees, a third for the names of all children admitted, with that of their father, the pariſh to which he belongs, the period of admiſſion, the name of the governor who preſents, and the date and name of the parent or friend by whom a child is diſcharged. An apprentice book, for the name, reſidence and profeſſion, with the amount of fees given to maſters or miſtreſſes with each child; a fifth for the names of nurſes in the country, their reſidence, how many children they keep, their names, and what is paid or due to them; another, to record the ſurvey of houſes or lands belonging to the hoſpital, with the names of the Governors preſent at the views; a book for eſtimates, in which is to be entered an account of repairs neceſſary for places in treaty for leaſe, or are advertiſed to be let; a will-book, or regiſter of bequeſts to the hoſpital; another for benefactions; one for plans of eſtates; another for ſchedules of fixtures; a book for contracts with hoſpital tenants, to be ſigned by them; and many others, demonſtrative of the extreme regularity with which buſineſs is conducted at Chriſt's Hoſpital.

The *Receiver* waits at the counting-houſe every day, excepting the uſual holidays, from nine o'clock till three, for the purpoſe of paying and receiving money; the particulars of which he enters in ſeveral books.

The *Wardrobe-keeper* and his aſſiſtant, keep an account of all the kerſies, cottons, linens, cloth, ſhoes, ſtockings, caps, &c. bought for the uſe of the children, and when and to whom they are delivered, which is rendered to the auditors annually. He attends at the counting-houſe at the above hours, to aſſiſt in the buſineſs of the day.

The office of *Collector* is underſtood from the name.

The children of the grammar-ſchool are examined in the months of March and September, by an experienced perſon, who

who is appointed by the governors. The upper and under maſters commence teaching at ſeven in the morning, from March 1 to November 1, and at eight the remainder of the year, diſmiſs the boys at eleven, begin at one, and conclude at five, or at four in the winter. No child is to be taught Latin till he can read Engliſh perfectly, and write well, the latter language grammatically. The upper maſter examines the under-maſter's higheſt form twice yearly, and takes thence ſuch as he judges ready for his inſtructions.

A catalogue of the children, with their forms, is called over morning and afternoon, and a copy delivered at the counting-houſe previous to each viſitation by the Committee; and the maſters are required to obſerve the dreſs of their ſcholars as to their cleanlineſs, and the propriety of their demeanour, who are not to be diſmiſſed till the bell rings for that purpoſe. The holidays allowed are, 11 days at Eaſter, including Sundays, one week at Whitſuntide, at Bartholomew tide three weeks, at Chriſtmas 15 days, and the uſual ſaint days, &c.

The *Catechiſer* teaches the children the fundamental points of religion three times each week, and at other times viſits the wards for the inſtruction of the inmates.

The *Engliſh Reading-maſter* is authoriſed to aſſemble all the children belonging to any two wards in the grammar-ſchool, from eleven to twelve o'clock, three times a-week, in order to obtain a knowledge of their progreſs. By this means every child in the twelve wards is examined once in fourteen days. He may ſubſtitute for this purpoſe, under his own obſervation, any boy intended for the Univerſity; and appoints a *Marker* in the ſeveral wards, who is to obſerve and correct miſtakes in the reading of prayers, &c. who reads himſelf occaſionally for example. If the marker is approved of for his diligence, he receives a ſilver medal of the founder.

There are two *Writing-maſters*, whoſe labours commence and terminate as before-mentioned, and *two Uſhers*.

All children are admitted by order from the Committee and Treaſurer, ſigned by the chief clerk. The maſters ſupply the boys with neceſſaries for their ſtudies at diſcretion, but render a half-yearly account. A committee of almoners examines the performances of boys at pleaſure, and the ſtricteſt injunctions are given to prevent partiality, either voluntarily or bribed, to particular lads, who are puniſhed by ſhame, more than corporal ſuffering, for neglect or miſconduct. In other reſpects they are governed as in the grammar-ſchool.

In the mathematical ſchool, the hours for teaching are as before, and the ſynopſis as follows:

I. Decimal,

I. Decimal, ſexageſimal, and logarithmetical, arithmetic, the extraction of roots, and firſt principles of vulgar fractions.

II. The uſual methods of finding the golden number, epact, the moon's age, the time of her ſouthing, and alſo the time of high water in any port.

III. The principles of geometry in the conſtruction of ſuch problems as are uſeful and neceſſary in the following articles.

IV. Plane and ſpherical trigonometry in the reſolution of all the various caſes of rectangular and oblique-angular triangles.

V. The uſe of the terreſtrial globe in finding the latitudes and longitudes of places, their angle of poſition, and the diſtance between them.

Alſo the uſe of the celeſtial globe in finding the latitudes, longitudes, right aſcenſions, declinations, amplitudes, azimuths, and altitudes of the ſun, moon, or fixed ſtars; together with the times of their riſing, ſetting, and culminating.

VI. Plane-ſailing; namely, the working of traverſes, the reſolution of all plane ſailing queſtions; with their application to ſailing in currents and turning to windward.

VII. Mercator's and middle latitude ſailing, exemplified in the reſolution of all the uſual queſtions.

VIII. Projection of the ſphere: and the application of ſpherical trigonometry in the reſolution of ſuch queſtions in aſtronomy as are neceſſary in finding the amplitudes, azimuths, altitudes, right aſcenſions, declinations, and angular diſtances, of the ſun, moon, and fixed ſtars.

IX. The doctrine of parallaxes; and the method of computing their effects on the altitudes and angular diſtances of celeſtial objects.

X. The uſe of inſtruments proper for obſerving the altitudes, azimuths, and angular diſtances, of the ſun, moon, and ſtars; ſuch as the quadrant, and amplitude, and azimuth, compaſs; with the uſe of the obſervations in finding the variation of the compaſs, the latitude a ſhip is in, as well from the meridional altitudes of the ſun, moon, and ſtars, as by means of two altitudes of the ſun, and the time which elapſes between the obſervations; alſo in finding the longitude of the ſhip by a time-keeper, and by the obſerved diſtance of the moon from the ſun or a fixed ſtar.

XI. The uſe of the plane and Mercator's charts.

XII. The uſe and application of the preceding article in the actual working of days' works, and correcting the dead reckoning by the obſervations.

Ten boys, who are upon the Royal foundation, muſt be qualified annually (in the opinion of the maſter and wardens of the Trinity Houſe), for the ſea-ſervice; but the maſter of the

ſchool

ſchool is permitted to enter his proteſt againſt any boy admitted or recommended who is not fit by the age of ſixteen. Before boys are received on the Royal, or Mr. Stone's foundations, they muſt have proficiency in the Engliſh language, write well, and have proceeded to the Rule of Three in arithmetic. The firſt claſs of the grammar-ſchool are aſſembled on Tueſday afternoon, and inſtructed in the mathematics.

The *Drawing-maſter* attends on Mondays, Wedneſdays, and Fridays, from one till five in the ſummer, and four in the winter, to inſtruct the boys upon the Royal, Stone's, and Stock's foundation; and any others that may be ſent by the proper officers from the writing or grammar ſchools. This maſter has power to reject boys whoſe talents appear inſufficient for excellence.

The *Reading-maſter*'s employment needs no detail.

The *Muſick-maſter* teaches from one to three o'clock, Tueſdays and Saturdays, and attends at the hall at publick ſuppers on Sundays.

The *Steward* is charged to prevent children eating in the wards, unleſs by expreſs permiſſion from the treaſurer. He attends at breakfaſt, dinner, and ſupper, in the hall, at the ringing of the bell, where the children aſſemble, thoroughly waſhed, cleaned, and combed. He prevents the children from wearing any other clothes than thoſe given by the hoſpital, except a pair of ſhoes, one ſhirt, and a pair of breeches, at the charge of their parents or friends, at firſt coming. He attends them to Chriſt's Church on Sundays to morning and evening ſervice, and on ſaints and other public days, when he obſerves their behaviour, and enforces ſilence and attention. He prevents the boys from leaving the bounds of the hoſpital, by frequently calling them together at unexpected hours, and corrects abſentees. If a boy elopes for the whole or part of a day, he receives publick chaſtiſement in the hall, and is confined the next holiday to his ward. Thoſe who have leave of abſence, and return too late, are reported by the nurſe to the ſteward, who gives the names to the treaſurer; and if the nurſe notices any repeated offence againſt theſe rules, or a boy loſes or deſtroys his clothes, the ſteward is required to expel him, till he can obtain re-admiſſion from the committee of almoners. The remainder of this officer's duty may readily be imagined.

From March to November the boys riſe at ſix and breakfaſt in the hall, ſeven go to ſchool, eleven return, twelve dine, one return to ſchool, five return, ſix ſup, eight go to bed. Thoſe hours are varied in winter.

The remaining offices of matron, nurſes, cooks, coblers, porters, and four beadles, are conducted by rules calculated to inſure cleanlineſs and health, propriety of conduct, and happi-

neſs to all parties; but their particular duties are ſo well known, that an abſtract of them would rather fatigue than entertain the reader.

The exhibition of drawings and ſpecimens of writing takes place in the hall. Each boy is ſeated at the tables with his performances before him. Many of the latter are of ſuperlative excellence, and the worſt would procure the writer a ſituation in the moſt faſtidious merchant's counting-houſe. The drawings exhibited are generally well performed, in good perſpective and clearly coloured, and certainly full as much ſo as any, *produced within a ſchool*, can be.

The publick-ſupper is a grand ſpectacle: a table extends up the midſt of the hall, and there are others on the ſides, which are covered with clean white cloths, neat wooden platters, and little wooden buckets for beer, with butter, grace the board. At the ſouth end, either the Preſident or the Treaſurer, with ſuch Governors as it may ſuit to be preſent, are ſeated; and behind them ſuch viſitors as obtain tickets of admiſſion. The maſters of the ſchool, with the matron and the ſteward, attend at the upper-end; and the nurſes of each ward preſide at the tables, on which are a great number of candles, which, with many patent lamps and a large luſtre, form the light of the hall.

The ceremony of the evening commences by three ſtrokes with a mallet, which produces a moſt profound ſilence. A youth then reads from the pulpit a chapter from the ſcriptures. During prayers the boys ſtand; and the reſponſe *Amen*, pronounced by about 800 youthful voices, has a moſt extraordinary effect. A pſalm, or hymn, is ſung by the whole aſſembly in uniſon, accompanied by the organ. Such is the modulation and reſtraint of the voices, that, though numerous enough to deafen the hearer, the ſounds aſcend in powerful yet gentle ſtrains to the Throne of Mercy, for bleſſings on the founders and benefactors. Indeed, the harmony would be complete, were it not for the unpleaſant *ſ* that hiſſes through our language, which is particularly perceivable in the hymn ſung by the boys of Chriſt Church, and may perhaps be unavoidable.

When ſupper is concluded, the doors of an adjoining ward are thrown open, and the ſpectators are invited to view it; after which the wards paſs before the Preſident and Governors in proceſſion, in the following order: The nurſe; a boy carrying two lighted candles; others with the bread-baſkets and trays; and the remainder of the members of the ward in pairs; who all bow before the Preſident.

Beſides the eſtabliſhment in London, conſiderable numbers of the younger children are maintained in the country at Hertford, and at Ware in the ſame county; at each place is a ſchool-

ſchool-maſter with a proper ſalary; and the children, when ſufficiently grown and inſtructed, are brought to the ſchool in London At Ware is a fine building, like a college, making a large quadrangle, for boys, containing a ſchool-houſe and a maſter's houſe, and thirteen houſes for nurſes to keep the children. Sir Jonathan Raymond, Knight, formerly Alderman of London, bought and gave them a field near adjoining to play in. At Hertford are alſo a ſchool-houſe, and a maſter's houſe, and twenty houſes more, each with two rooms on a floor, and gardens belonging.

The revenues of this moſt noble charity are, as they ought to be, very ample, being increaſed by the donations and teſtamentary benefactions of many generous and pious individuals. The Governors have alſo a duty of three farthings on every piece of cloth brought to Blackwell-hall. Of late years, a reſolution has been adopted to re-build the hoſpital by degrees, it being found altogether decayed and ruinous, and to prevent the reduction of the eſtabliſhment by this inevitable expence, a large, though as yet inſufficient ſum, has been ſubſcribed.

CHARITY SCHOOLS. Far inferior to the free ſchools, in rank and in extent of education beſtowed, are the eſtabliſhments now found in almoſt every pariſh in England, where children of both ſexes, either by the benevolence of individuals, or at the publick expence, are taught to read, write, and ſew; and thus qualified, at a proper age, to be received as apprentices or ſervants by reſpectable perſons, with a proſpect of advancing themſelves in life, according to their ability and induſtry. Theſe children are generally clothed in a plain decent uniform; in ſome ſchools they are, and in others they are not, boarded and lodged; but perhaps no inſtitutions could, on the whole, be conceived more honourable or beneficial to the nation, than thoſe which at once favour early habits of application, ſupply uſeful knowledge, and impart the rudiments of the proteſtant religion. Once in every year, on Aſcenſion day, the charity children educated in the metropolis and its immediate vicinity, go in a body through the principal ſtreets to the Cathedral of Saint Paul; they are clean and newly clothed, their countenances beaming with health and cheerfulneſs, the effect of rational induſtry and temperate plenty; the ſight always intereſts the publick curioſity, and callous indeed muſt that heart be which does not experience the trueſt ſatisfaction in the contemplation of this moſt dignified and honourable national proceſſion. In theſe ſchools, in the metropolis alone, it is reckoned that 9000 children are inſtructed; and this number is excluſive of thoſe received into free ſchools, who are eſtimated at 5000; of the children of diſſenters, Jews, and others, who have eſtabliſhments

of their own, and of the private ſchools eſtabliſhed in all parts of the kingdom for the education of young people in conſideration of an annual ſtipend, and which, in and within a few miles of the metropolis, are ſaid to be 3730.

SUNDAY SCHOOLS. For the inſtruction of thoſe whoſe time is devoted, during the week, to the purſuits of induſtry, ſome pious and benevolent perſons have, of late years, formed and ſuperintended Sunday Schools, which are eſtabliſhed in many pariſhes, and where the children gain the rudiments of religion, and ſome other knowledge. To further the purpoſes of theſe undertakings, a ſociety is formed, under the denomination of the *Sunday School Society*, the members of which have by ſubſcription raiſed a fund, which is employed in the purchaſe of bibles and religious books, and otherwiſe promoting the great end of Sunday Schools.

Such is the outline of the proviſion made by law, bounty, or cuſtom, for the communication of early inſtruction; but in England there are, beſides, many expenſive and honourable eſtabliſhments for the diffuſion of knowledge, and for the promotion of art, and reward of artiſts, ſome of which are to be particularly noticed.

ROYAL SOCIETY. The origin of this moſt learned, reſpectable, and uſeful body, is aſcribed to the honourable Robert Boyle, and Sir William Petty, who, together with Seth Ward, Wilkins, Wallis, Goddard, Willis, Bathurſt, and Wren, doctors of divinity and phyſick, and Matthew Wren, and Mr. Rook, frequently met in the apartments of Dr. Wilkins, in Wadham College, Oxford. This party of ſtudious friends, while at Oxford, were not only eminently diſtinguiſhed at home for their learned productions, but likewiſe highly revered by the Literati abroad. The Society continued at Oxford till 1658, when the members were called to various parts of the kingdom, on account of their reſpective functions, and the majority coming to London, they conſtantly attended the aſtronomical and geometrical lectures at Greſham College, where being joined by ſeveral perſons of the greateſt learning and diſtinction, they continued to meet there once or twice a week till the death of Oliver Cromwell, when the college was for a time converted into a barrack, or military quarter, for the reception of ſoldiers.

But this ſtorm being diſpelled by the reſtoration, the ſociety began to reſume their meetings; and for the more effectual carrying on their great and laudable deſign, to purchaſe inſtruments for the performing experiments, and to defray their neceſſary expences, they bound themſelves by a written obligation.

The king, willing to encourage ſo honourable and uſeful an enterpriſe, as a diſtinguiſhing mark of his affection for the ſociety, by his letters patent of the 22d of April, 1663, conſtituted them a body politic and corporate, by the appellation of the *Preſident, Council, and Fellows, of the Royal Society of London, for improving Natural Knowledge.*

By this charter, in which the king declares himſelf their founder and patron, the preſident, council, and fellows, are impowered to have a common ſeal; and to break, change, and renew it at pleaſure. And his majeſty, in teſtimony of favour and eſteem, granted a *coat of arms* to them and their ſucceſſors, viz. On a field argent, a canton of three lions of England; for a creſt, an eagle proper, on a ducal coronet, ſupporting a ſhield charged with the lions aforeſaid; and for ſupporters, two talbots with coronets on their necks.

For the good government of the ſociety, the charter eſtabliſhes, that the council ſhall conſiſt of twenty-one perſons (the preſident always to be one); and, that all perſons who, within two months next enſuing the date of the ſaid charter, ſhall be choſen by the ſaid preſident and council; and in all times after the ſaid two months by the preſident, council, and fellows, and noted in a regiſter to be kept for that purpoſe, ſhall be fellows of the ſaid ſociety, and ſo accounted and called during life, except by the ſtatutes of the ſaid ſociety to be made, any of them ſhall happen to be amoved.

They were alſo licenſed to meet in any part of the metropolis they might think fit, to make and alter laws for their own regulation, and to build, according to their diſcretion, for the uſe of the ſociety. And it was further provided, that if any abuſes or differences ſhould ariſe about the government or affairs of the ſociety, whence its conſtitution, progreſs, improvement, or buſineſs might ſuffer, or be hindered; in ſuch caſes his majeſty aſſigned and authorized the archbiſhop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, or keeper of the great ſeal, the lord high treaſurer of England, the keeper of the privy ſeal, the biſhop of London, and the two principal ſecretaries of ſtate for the time being, or any four or more of them, to compoſe and redreſs any ſuch differences or abuſes.

The ſtatutes which were afterward framed, and approved by the king, eſtabliſhed the affairs of the ſociety on a more reſpectable and prudent footing. Their principal proviſions were that each fellow ſhould ſign an obligation promiſing to promote the good of the ſociety, attend its meetings, and obſerve its ſtatutes, with a proviſo that any one may withdraw on giving notice in writing to the preſident. Each member pays an admiſſion fee of five guineas, and is ſubject to an annual pay-

ment of two guineas and a half, unleſs he redeems it by paying at once thirty-one guineas.

The ordinary meetings are held once a week; on Thurſdays; and by the ſtatutes none can be preſent beſide the fellows, without the leave of the ſociety, under the degree of a baron in one of his majeſty's three kingdoms, or of his majeſty's privy council, or unleſs he be an eminent foreigner, and theſe only with the leave of the preſident. The buſineſs of the weekly meetings is, to order, take account, conſider, and diſcourſe of philoſophical experiments and obſervations; to read, hear, and diſcourſe upon letters, reports, and other papers, containing philoſophical matters; as alſo to view and diſcourſe upon the productions and rarities of nature and art; and to conſider what to deduce from them, or how they may be improved for uſe or diſcovery. The experiments are then to be made at the charge of the Society; two curators at leaſt are to be appointed for the inſpection of thoſe which cannot be performed before the ſociety; and whoſe report of matter of fact ſhall be ſtated and returned.

The election of Fellows is made by ballot; and their admiſſion by a ſolemn declaration from the preſident of their election; but this regulation not being deemed effectual to prevent perſons unqualified from being choſen members of the ſociety; a new ſtatute was made, ordaining, that every perſon for the future (not a peer, or foreigner of diſtinction), deſiring to be admitted a fellow, muſt be recommended by an atteſtation under the hands of three, or more members, ſetting forth his name, place of habitation, his qualifications, works, and productions; which is to be put up in the aſſembly-room at ten ſeveral meetings, to give each member an opportunity of inquiring into the character of the candidate before they proceed to ballot. But all peers of Great Britain and Ireland, and their ſons, together with all foreign princes and ambaſſadors, are eligible, at the recommendation of one member, and to be elected as ſoon as propoſed.

The election of the council and other officers is made once a-year; eleven of the exiſting council being continued by lot for the next year, and ten new ones choſen in like manner. Out of this new council are elected a preſident, treaſurer, and two ſecretaries, in the ſame way.

The *Preſident* preſides in all meetings, regulates all debates of the ſociety and council; ſtates and puts queſtions; calls for reports and accounts from committees, curators, and others; ſummons all extraordinary meetings upon urgent occaſions, and ſees to the execution of the ſtatutes. The *Vice-Preſident* has the ſame power in the abſence of the preſident.

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The *Treaſurer*, or his deputy, receives and keeps accounts of all money due to the ſociety. He pays ſmall ſums by order of the preſident under his hand; but thoſe that exceed five pounds by order of the council. All bills of charges for experiments muſt firſt be ſigned by the curators. The accounts of the treaſurer are audited four times a-year, by a committee of the council, and once a-year by a committee of the ſociety.

The *Secretaries* take notes of the orders and material paſſages of the meetings; take care of the books, papers, and writings of the ſociety; and direct the clerks in making entries of all matters in the regiſter and journal-books of the ſociety, or council; draw up ſuch letters to be written in their name, which muſt be approved at one of their meetings; and give notice of the candidates propounded in order to election.

The *Curators*, by office, have a ſufficient allowance for their encouragement not exceeding 200 *l.* a-year. They muſt be well ſkilled in philoſophical and mathematical learning; well verſed in obſervations, inquiries, and experiments of nature and art. They take care of the managing of all experiments and obſervations appointed by the ſociety, or council, and report the ſame, and perform ſuch other taſks as the ſociety or the council appoint; ſuch as the examining of ſciences, arts, and inventions now in uſe, and the bringing in hiſtories of natural and artificial things, &c. They muſt be propoſed a month at leaſt before they are choſen, and examined by the council before the election, to which every member of the ſociety muſt be ſummoned. They are at firſt only choſen for a year of probation, (except they be of known merit): At the end of that time, they may be either elected for perpetuity, or for a longer term of probation, or wholly rejected. The cauſes of ejecting a curator, are the ſame with ejecting a fellow, or for fraudulent dealing, and negligence in the affairs of the ſociety, provided that he ſhall firſt receive three reſpective admonitions. If any curator ſhall be diſabled by age, infirmity, or caſualty, in the ſervice of the ſociety, ſome proviſion ſhall be made for him during life, if his condition requires it, according as the council ſhall think fit.

The *Clerk* conſtantly attends all meetings, follows the directions of the ſecretaries, in regiſtering and entering all matters appointed; and muſt not communicate any thing contained in their books, to any that is not a fellow. He is allowed by the ſtatutes a certain rate for what he copies, and a yearly ſtipend for his allowance.

The *Printer* is to take care for the printing all books committed to him by order of the ſociety, or council; and therein he ſhall obſerve their directions, as to the correction of the edition, the number of copies, the form, or volume, and other particulars.

The ſociety publiſh an annual volume in two parts, under the name of *Philoſophical Tranſactions of the Royal Society of London.* Of theſe the number is very conſiderable, and the collection is conſidered a moſt valuable treaſury of progreſſive information.

The ſtatutes make further proviſion, in ſeveral minute particulars, reſpecting officers and other objects, and declare, that the *cauſes of ejection* ſhall be contemptuous diſobedience of the ſtatutes and orders of the ſociety, or malicious defaming the ſame. This ſhall be declared by the preſident at one of the meetings, and the ejection recorded.

The ſociety being thus eſtabliſhed, men of all ranks and profeſſions vied in promoting its deſigns, by communicating every thing within their power relating to natural and artificial diſcoveries. Charles II. preſented them with a ſtately gilt ſilver mace, to be carried before the preſident. And, as a further proof of his ſincere attachment, by his letters patent of the 8th April, 1667, gave them Chelſea College, with its appurtenances, and twenty-ſix, or twenty-ſeven acres of land ſurrounding; but the ſociety not having converted part of it into a phyſic garden as was intended; and the king having reſolved to erect an hoſpital for old and maimed ſoldiers, purchaſed it back on the 8th of February, 1681, for the ſum of 1300 *l.*

On their removal from Greſham College, the Royal Society purchaſed a houſe in Crane-court, Fleet-ſtreet, where they long flouriſhed; but when Somerſet-houſe was converted into a public building, his Majeſty was pleaſed to aſſign to them a ſpacious and commodious ſuite of apartments, which they now occupy.

The muſeum of this Society, is a collection worthy its character; and the library is furniſhed with a large and valuable ſtock of the beſt authors.

On this excellent and uſeful Society, Voltaire, who is not, in general, fond of praiſing the Engliſh, makes the following obſervations in his Age of Louis XIV.: "To this illuſtrious So-"ciety the world is indebted for the late diſcoveries relating to "light, the principles of gravitation, the motion of the fixed "ſtars, the geometry of tranſcendent qualities, and a hundred "other diſcoveries, which, in this reſpect, might juſtly denomi-"nate the age we ſpeak of, to be the age of the Engliſh, as "well as the age of Louis the XIV." And, in 1666, the great Colbert, emulous of this glory of England, adviſed Louis XIV., at the requeſt alſo of ſeveral men of learning, to eſtabliſh the French Academy of Sciences, which, in 1669, became an incorporated body like ours of London, as ſundry others have ſince been in other countries of Europe.

The great purpoſe of this Society, another author obſerves, is to make faithful records of all the works of nature and art,

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which can come within their reach; that the preſent age and poſterity may diſtinguiſh error ſtrengthened by preſcription, reſtore truths neglected, apply thoſe known to more various uſes, and make the way more eaſily to what remains unrevealed in all uſeful, and more particularly in all commercial ſciences, which is the life and ſoul of theſe kingdoms. This is the compaſs of their deſign, and theſe great ends they have ſo far anſwered, as to have proved of unſpeakable emolument to mankind in general, as well as Great Britain in particular: and thoſe nations of Europe that have followed their laudable example, have likewiſe been of great ſervice to the Society, as well as to their native ſtates and empires. As for what belongs to the members themſelves that conſtitute this ſociety, they are of different religions, countries, and profeſſions. For they did not propoſe to lay the foundation of an Engliſh, Scotch, Iriſh, Popiſh, or Proteſtant philoſophy, but a philoſophy of mankind. A moſt glorious and moſt benevolent attempt, and attended with the moſt glorious and benevolent conſequences! By their naturalizing, as it were, men of all countries, they have ſettled a conſtant intelligence throughout all civilized nations, and made the Royal Society of England the general bank and free port of the whole world, for ſound knowledge and philoſophy grounded on experiments, not on viſionary hypotheſis and conjecture, as was before their happy inſtitution. And by the admiſſion of men of all profeſſions, thoſe two benefits have ariſen: 1. Every art, and every way of life have been ſecured from receiving detriment by their joint councils. 2. By the equal balance of all profeſſions, no one in particular has by this ſociety overweighed the other, or made the oracle ſpeak their private ſenſe only. All ranks of men have ſome one darling on which their care is fixed. If mechanics alone were to make a philoſophy, they would bring it all into their ſhops, and force it to conſiſt wholly of ſprings, wheels, and weights; if phyſicians, ſcarcely any thing would be conſidered beſide the cure of diſeaſes. So much is to be found in men of all conditions of that which is called pedantry in ſcholars; which is an obſtinate addiction to the forms of ſome private life, and too regardleſs of general things. But, though the Society entertains men of particular profeſſions, yet the far greater number are gentlemen, free and unconfined. This has prevented, in a great meaſure, two corruptions of learning complained of: the one, that knowledge ſtill degenerates to conſult preſent profit too ſoon; the other, that philoſophers have been always maſters and ſcholars; ſome impoſing, and all the others ſubmitting, and not as equal obſervers without dependence. The firſt of theſe was, before the eſtabliſhment of this corporation, the cauſe of much inconve-

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nience. It weakened the ſtrength of uſeful arts; it made an unhappy diſproportion in their increaſe; while not the beſt, but the moſt gainful of them flouriſhed. But, above all, it diminiſhed that very profit for which men ſtrive; and ſo they were ſerved like ſome fooliſh guards, who, while earneſt in picking up ſmall money dropt out of the priſoner's pocket, let the priſoner eſcape for whom they might have got a great ranſom. A ſecond error that has been avoided by this Society, is, that the ſeats of knowledge have ſince their time been laboratories, as they ought to be; not only ſchools, where ſome have been taught, and all the reſt ſubſcribed.

Society of Antiquaries. Reſearch into the hiſtory, beauties, defects, and properties of thoſe objects which have ſurvived the ravages of time, has always been a favourite purſuit of the liberal and enlightened. Theſe dumb witneſſes, of whatever materials compoſed, ſpeak with irrefutable certainty of the manners, cuſtoms, and habits of the ages in which they were formed, and enable thoſe who examine them to form an unerring judgment on matters connected with the hiſtory of thoſe times.

Societies for the proſecution of theſe ſtudies have been formed in ancient as well as modern times, and have been often deſired and attempted in England. Sir H. Spelman ſpeaks of a Society of Antiquaries in his time, to whom his treatiſe on the terms, written in the year 1614, was communicated, he himſelf being one of the number. The ſociety was founded in 1572, by Archbiſhop Parker, Camden, Sir Robert Cotton, Stowe, and others. Application was made, in 1589, to Queen Elizabeth for a charter, and houſe wherein they might hold their meetings, and erect a library; but by the death of that Princeſs their application proved abortive. Her ſucceſſor, James I., was far from favouring their deſign. In 1717, this ſociety was revived, ſince which time no interruption has happened; and, in 1751, it received its charter of incorporation from George II.

In this inſtrument, his Majeſty declares, that whereas the ſtudy of antiquity, and the hiſtory of former times, has ever been eſteemed highly commendable and uſeful, not only to improve the minds of men, but alſo to incite them to virtuous and noble actions, and ſuch as may hereafter render them famous and worthy examples to late poſterity; therefore the King, out of his princely affection to all ſorts of learning and good literature, and for the encouragement of all ſuch as ſhall be deſirous to promote ſo laudable an undertaking, granted that there ſhall be for ever a ſociety, to be called the *Society of Antiquaries of London*; of which ſociety the king declared himſelf the founder and patron: and that it ſhould conſiſt of a preſident, council, and fellows,

fellows, who, by the name of the president, council, and fellows of the Society of Antiquaries of London, should for ever be a body politic and corporate; and by that name and style have perpetual succession; and use a common seal, which they may make anew and change from time to time as they may find occasion. In this corporate capacity, they may sue and be sued, purchase real estates not exceeding in annual value 1000*l.*, without licence of alienation in mortmain, and make bye-laws.

The *Council* consists of twenty-one members, of whom the president is one. The first council was nominated in the charter, which provided that they should continue in office till the 23d of April then next, and until other persons should be elected in their room. Twelve of them were empowered within two months to elect persons who should be fellows of the society. "And, by how much any persons," the charter says, "shall be "more excelling in the knowledge of antiquities, and history "of this and other nations; by how much the more they are "desirous to promote the honour, business, and emoluments "of this society; and by how much the more eminent they "shall be for piety, virtue, integrity, and loyalty; by so much "the more fit and worthy shall such persons be judged of be-"ing elected, and admitted into the said society."

The president, council, and fellows, or any fifteen or more of them, are empowered annually, on the 23d of April, to elect a *President*, for one year; but, if he should die within that time, nine or more of the council may elect one to serve in his stead, till the ensuing 23d of April.

If any other member of the *Council* should die or be removed, which, for misdemeanor or other reasonable cause, they may by the president and rest of the council; then the whole society, or twenty-one or more of them, may choose others to supply the deficiency, who are to remain in office till the following 23d of April. On that day in every year, the whole body of the society nominate eleven persons of the existing council to be continued for the ensuing year, and appoint ten others of the society to be their coadjutors.

The president may also appoint four of the council to be *Deputy-presidents*, to officiate for the president in case of sickness or absence; but, if four are appointed, the senior of them always acts.

The *bye-laws* are directed to be made by the whole body, at a meeting where at least twenty-one shall be present, and they may form such statutes, rules, orders, bye-laws, and constitutions, as shall appear to them to be good, useful, honest, and necessary, for the encouragement, advancement, and furtherance

of the ſtudy and knowledge of antiquities, and hiſtory of this and other countries; the government, regulation, and direction of the ſaid ſociety, and their eſtate, goods, lands, revenues, and buſineſs; and the particular manner of the election, choice, admiſſion, and amoval of all and every the members and officers thereof.

The ſociety are alſo empowered to appoint treaſurers, ſecretaries, clerks, and officers, one ſerjeant at mace, and ſuch other ſervants as may be neceſſary and uſeful; to attend upon the preſident, or his deputy, on all proper occaſions; or to do ſuch other things as may be expedient.

And if any abuſes or differences happen, concerning the government or affairs of the ſociety, the Archbiſhop of Canterbury, the Lord Chancellor, or Lord-keeper, the Lord Privy Seal, and the Secretaries of State, are nominated *viſitors* of the ſociety; with full power and authority to them, or any three or more of them, to compoſe and redreſs any ſuch differences or abuſes.

In purſuance of this charter, the ſociety have formed a ſeries of uſeful ſtatutes. By them all the fellows ſubſcribe an *obligation*, binding themſelves to promote to the utmoſt of their power, the honour and intereſt of the ſociety, and to obſerve its ſtatutes.

If any fellow ſhall ſignify to the preſident, or his deputy, under his hand, that he deſires to *withdraw* from the ſociety, he ſhall from that time be free from any future payments.

The *payments* are five guineas for an admiſſion fee, unleſs it is remitted; two guineas annually, for the aſſurance of which a bond is given in the penalty of 30 *l.*, but which may be compounded at once by a payment of twenty-one guineas. A liſt of perſons in arrear is directed to be publicly read at four meetings, and at all other meetings laid on the table for peruſal of the fellows. The prints or other works of the ſociety ſhall be delivered only to ſuch fellows, who, at the time of delivery, ſhall not be in arrear more than twelve months of their annual contribution; and if any perſon ſhall, at the annual audit of the accounts, be found more than two years contribution in arrear, it ſhall be in the power of the preſident and council, at their diſcretion, to put the bond before mentioned in execution; giving ſuch notice as they ſhall think proper. Nor can any member who is in arrear more than twelve months of his annual contribution, give a vote at the election of preſident, council, and officers.

The ordinary *meetings* of the ſociety are weekly, on Thurſdays, beginning about ſeven of the clock in the afternoon, and continuing until nine; unleſs the major part of the fellows preſent

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ſhall, for that time, reſolve to riſe ſooner, or ſit later. In theſe ordinary meetings, in the abſence of the preſident and deputy, or vice-preſidents, if five or more members meet, the ſenior fellow in nomination then preſent ſhall preſide. At theſe meetings fellows may introduce two viſitors.

Votes are taken by ballot; and five members may proceed to buſineſs, except where the charter requires a greater number.

Every perſon to be *elected* a fellow, muſt be propoſed and recommended at a meeting by three or more members, either upon their perſonal knowledge of him, or on his being known to the ſociety by his works; which members ſhall then deliver to one of the ſecretaries a paper, ſigned by themſelves with their own names, ſpecifying the name, addition, profeſſion, and chief qualifications of the candidate for election, and alſo the uſual place of his abode; which paper, with the date of the day when delivered, ſhall be fixed up, and remain in the common meeting room of the ſociety at four ſeveral ordinary ſucceſſive meetings, before the ſaid candidate ſhall be put to the ballot; which four meetings ſhall be excluſive of the day when he is propounded, and the day when he is ballotted for. And as perſons of high rank and dignity become an honour and advantage to any ſociety; any peer of Great Britain and Ireland, or the eldeſt ſons of ſuch peers, or any of his Majeſty's Privy-council, or Judges of either kingdom, may be propounded by a ſingle member; and put to the ballot for election the ſame day, a competent number for electing members being preſent; and the election ſhall, in all caſes, be determined by a majority of two-thirds of the votes of the members preſent, and balloting on the occaſion. If any perſon, after being elected, fails to pay his admiſſion fee of five guineas, within the next four ſucceeding meetings of the ſociety (the day of his election not to be reckoned one), his election is void, and the ſecretary of the ſociety, immediately after every election, ſends notice to the member elected, with a copy of the preceding clauſe. The manner of *admiſſion* is, that at ſome meeting after the fellow has paid his admiſſion fee, and ſigned the obligation, the preſident or his deputy, taking him by the hand, ſays theſe words: "I do, by the authority, and in the name of the Society of Antiquaries of London, admit you a fellow thereof."

The ſtatutes alſo regulate with great exactneſs the form of balloting for preſident and officers; the duty of preſident; and the keeping of the common ſeal.

Members may be expelled from the ſociety by ballot, and the cauſes are thus declared: "If any fellow of the ſociety ſhall "contemptuouſly, or contumaciouſly diſobey the ſtatutes or orders of the ſociety; or ſhall, by ſpeaking, writing, or printing,

" ing, publicly defame the ſociety; or adviſedly and maliciouſ-
" ly do any thing to the damage and detriment thereof; he
" ſhall be liable to be expelled."

Every *Benefactor* to the ſociety is to have his name regiſtered in the catalogue of the benefactors, with the mention of his gift; and every benefactor, who ſhall preſent the ſociety with any ſum of money, or gift to the value of twenty pounds, or more, upon acceptance thereof by the ſociety, ſhall have the privilege of being preſent at the weekly meetings of the ſociety.

Foreigners of note, or learning, may be admitted *honorary* and *correſponding members*, without being ſubject to any contributions.

The ſtatutes alſo provide for the due management of the revenues of the ſociety. The publication of drawings and papers communicated is alſo carefully provided for, and theſe are, as often as the council think fit, collected in volumes, under the title *Archæologia*.

The Society of Antiquaries poſſeſs a library, the books in which may, on proper application, be lent to the fellows; but many prudent precautions are adopted to prevent an abuſe of this permiſſion.

By the bounty of the King, this ſociety has excellent *apartments* in Somerſet-houſe, contiguous to thoſe of the Royal Society.

BRITISH MUSEUM. Sir Hans Sloane may, with truth, be pronounced the founder of this great receptacle of every thing valuable, which muſt ultimately vie with, if not exceed, every muſeum of the kind in Europe; but it would be injuſtice in thus mentioning Sir Hans, not to revert to a predeceſſor of greater liberality, who *gave* his invaluable collection to the public; this was Sir Robert Cotton. Sir Hans *offered* his books, and other articles, to the public for 20,000 *l.*; and the purchaſers, who were the Legiſlature, found it neceſſary to provide a place for their reception. Fortunately, Montague-houſe, one of the largeſt manſions in the metropolis, was obtained at the critical moment. Hence the origin of the foundation, which has received adventitious aids almoſt annually, by gifts, bequeſts, and purchaſes, of every ſpecies of curioſity, in animals, vegetables, foſſils, minerals, ſculpture, &c. &c. and literature, to the preſent moment. The truſtees who conduct the concerns of the inſtitution, are uniformly men of talents, fortune, and rank; conſequently every endeavour is conſtantly made to forward its intereſts, and the honour of the nation. Thoſe gentlemen have the appointment of the various officers, who preſide over the ſeveral departments; and on their care and judgment depend all the arrangements neceſſary to ſecure the ſafety and cleanlineſs

cleanlineſs or the various objects intruſted to their care, and the due accommodation of thoſe who have occaſion to examine them.

An annual return is made to the legiſlature by the truſtees of all money tranſactions; and ſums are in general voted annually for the temporary wants of the muſeum.

It is not poſſible to give an account of all the objects of literature and art in this repoſitory; but a ſlight enumeration of ſome of the principal collections, and the means by which they were accumulated, may be attempted.

The *Harleian Library* contains 7000 MSS. which were bought by the Right Honourable Secretary Harley; and that noble collection of Sir Simon D'Ewes, which is much rarer. There are abundance of ancient manuſcripts, books, charters, &c. ſome in Saxon, others of high antiquity, which give great light into hiſtory. There are all John Stowe's collection; ſeveral original ledger-books, coucher-books, and cartularies of monaſteries in this kingdom; as Bury St. Edmund's, St. Alban's, and other religious houſes. This collection, in ſome particulars, exceeds any in England, and is the greateſt treaſury of its kind in the kingdom. There are, beſide, many valuable manuſcripts and printed books.

In April 1767, an act was paſſed to enable the truſtees to ſell or exchange any duplicates of books, medals, coins, &c. &c., and to purchaſe others in their places.

In 1772, the Houſe of Commons voted 8410 *l.* for purchaſing antiquities brought from Italy, and 840 *l.* to provide a proper receptacle for them.

And in 1804, 16,000 *l.* for building additional galleries and apartments for Egyptian and other articles, that are already and may be hereafter given.

One of the firſt gifts to the public after the eſtabliſhment of the inſtitution, was the legacy of Colonel Lithieullier, conſiſting of a curious collection of Egyptian antiquities; to which Pitt Lithieullier, Eſq. nephew to the Colonel, added ſeveral antiquities, which he himſelf had collected during his reſidence at Grand Cairo.

And as an addition to the Cotton Library, Mrs. Maddox, relict to the late Mr. Maddox, hiſtoriographer royal, left by her will her huſband's large and valuable collection of manuſcripts, which had engaged his attention many years.

Major Edwards bequeathed many books; and 7000 *l.* after the deceaſe of Elizabeth Mills; and the truſtees acquired the the collections of Dr. Birch.

In 1760, Mr. Da Coſta preſented them with Hebrew manuſcripts; ſince when numberleſs gifts have been made; one of

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the principal of which was that of the Rev. Dr. Cracherode of the *Principes Editiones* of the Greek and Roman claſſics.

The *Cottonian Library* was collected by the indefatigable induſtry and excellent judgment of Sir Robert Bruce Cotton, who was born in 1570, and died in 1662. This ineſtimable treaſury of knowledge, after being with difficulty reſcued from the fury of the republicans during the interregnum, was ſecured to the public in 1700 by a ſtatute entitled "An act for the "better ſettling and preſerving the library kept in the houſe at "Weſtminſter, called Cotton Houſe, in the name and family "of the Cottons, for the benefit of the public." This act, after doing ample juſtice to Sir Robert Cotton, for forming a moſt valuable collection of manuſcripts, papers, and records, of great uſe and ſervice for the knowledge and preſervation of our Conſtitution in Church and State, and generally eſteemed the beſt of its kind any where extant, and reciting, that the ſame had been carefully preſerved, and much augmented and enlarged by Sir Thomas the ſon, and Sir John the grandſon, of the ſaid Sir Robert Cotton, declares, "That the ſaid Sir John Cot-"ton, in purſuance of the deſires and intentions of his father "and grandfather, is content and willing that his manſion-"houſe and library ſhould continue in his family and name; "and that it be kept and preſerved by the name of *The Cot-"tonian Library*, for public uſe and advantage."

After this preamble, ſo honourable to the collectors, and ſo deciſive in favour of the utility and importance of the collection, the ſtatute enacts, that after Sir John Cotton's death, the ſaid library, together with his manſion-houſe and its appurtenances, be veſted in truſtees; the houſe for the uſe of the deſcendants of Sir Robert Cotton, the founder, for ever; and the library to be carefully preſerved for the public uſe, without ſuffering any alienation or embezzlement whatever.

The firſt concern of the truſtees appointed by the act, was to cauſe the library to be carefully inſpected, in order to aſcertain and identify its contents; that they might render the keeper, whom they were to appoint to the care of it, reſponſible for the ſecurity of the ſame. For this purpoſe, they named Matthew Hutton, John Anſtis, and Humphrey Wanley, three of the moſt eminent antiquaries of thoſe days, to examine carefully into the ſtate of it. Their report is dated June 22, 1703; in which they ſtate the receptacle for the books to be a bad one, defects in the catalogue, and that ſome of the books were decaying.

The ſolicitude of the legiſlature to have this important collection effectually ſecured for the uſe of the public, induced them, ſoon after, to frame a new ſtatute, intitled, "An act for "the

" the better ſecuring her Majeſty's purchaſe of Cotton Houſe, " in Weſtminſter;" in which, after reciting that the library, in its preſent ſituation, was by no means in the ſtate of ſecurity nor of the degree of utility it was intended to be, it was provided, that, to the intent ſo great a treaſure of books and manuſcripts, ſo generouſly given for the public ſervice, might not remain any longer uſeleſs; and that it might be in her Majeſty's power to make this moſt valuable collection uſeful to her own ſubjects, and to all learned ſtrangers; an agreement had been made with Sir John Cotton, grandſon to the donor, for the purchaſe of the inheritance of the houſe where the library was depoſited, for the ſum of 4500*l.*; which purchaſe could not have been made without an act of Parliament, the preceding act concerning this library having directed that the houſe ſhould not be ſold or alienated, enacts, that the ſaid houſe be henceforth veſted in the Queen, her heirs and ſucceſſors for ever.

The library was removed in 1712, to Eſſex Houſe, Eſſex-ſtreet, Strand, but for what preciſe reaſon is not known; where it continued till 1730. From this place it was ſubſequently conveyed to a houſe in Little Dean's-yard, Weſtminſter, purchaſed by the Crown of Lord Aſhburnham.

On the 23d of October 1731, ſome unaccountable careleſſneſs was the cauſe of a conflagration in the library, which had nearly deſtroyed it. After great exertion, aſſiſted by the ſpeaker Onſlow, and ſuch of the truſtees as could be aſſembled, the fire was extinguiſhed; and the remaining books were immediately removed to the Dormitory juſt erected by the Dean and Chapter of Weſtminſter, for the ſcholars at that ſchool. Every ſtep that prudence could ſuggeſt was taken, by the legiſlature and others, to repair the injury where practicable.

In 1753, *Sir Hans Sloane's* will induced the Commons to purchaſe his *collection*, and form a national repoſitory, under the name of the Britiſh Muſeum. It did not eſcape them how valuable and important an addition the Cottonian Library would be to an eſtabliſhment of ſuch great public utility. The act, therefore, made in that year, directed the manuſcripts, &c. to be depoſited in it, appointing that two of the truſtees ſhould be nominated in ſucceſſion, by the repreſentatives of the Cotton family for ever.

" It now remains (Mr. Planta ſays, from whom ſome of the above particulars are ſelected,) to ſtate what ſteps the curators of the Britiſh Muſeum have taken, in order to fulfil the intentions of the founder, the donor, and the legiſlature, reſpecting this important part of their truſt. After cauſing the library to be carefully depoſited in a ſafe and conſpicuous part of the department of manuſcripts, they being aware that much remained yet

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to be done, in order to render it as uſeful as the nature of its contents would admit of, were pleaſed, in the year 1793, to direct the keeper of that department, (an office then held by me,) to take every ſtep that might be deemed adviſeable, to reſtore ſuch of the damaged volumes as were thought yet capable of ſome farther repairs; and the imperfections of Smith's Repertory having been repeatedly complained of, to prepare a new and more accurate catalogue without delay. The following account of the manner in which I endeavoured to acquit myſelf of this taſk, will at the ſame time convey the beſt idea I can give of the preſent ſtate of the library.

"This library, which originally conſiſted of 958 volumes, was, by the above mentioned fire, in the year 1731, reduced to 861 volumes; of which, when brought to the Muſeum, 105 were damaged bundles, preſerved in caſes. Many of the volumes in bindings were not paged at all; and few indeed were paged with accuracy. In ſeveral of them were evident marks that leaves had been purloined; and ſome had been bound up with much irregularity and diſorder. Concerning the bundles in caſes, the committee of the Houſe of Commons, who, in the year 1732, examined into the damage occaſioned by the fire, reported that ſeveral of them might, in careful hands, be ſo far reſtored as to be rendered uſeful; but this was afterwards rendered a taſk of much greater difficulty, the perſons by whom they had been occaſionally handled having thrown them into great, and in many inſtances irretrievable, confuſion." By Mr. Planta's great care and judgment, however, 51 out of the 105 damaged manuſcripts have been reſtored, and are bound up in 44 volumes; the remaining bundles, which appeared of leſs importance, are deemed irretrievable, and are now depoſited in 62 caſes. Mr. Planta alſo drew up a moſt able and valuable catalogue, which has been printed.

The collection of *Sir Hans Sloane* was made by that excellent phyſician during the courſe of an active life, protracted to the term of ninety-one years, and ſpent in the purſuit of knowledge and practice of benevolence; and it was augmented by a collection bequeathed to him by William Courteen, Eſq.

The *King's Libraries* of printed books and manuſcripts are an accumulation of ſeveral centuries, munificently beſtowed upon the public; and numbers of them bear the name of George III.

The Britiſh Muſeum is *ſituated* on the north ſide of Great Ruſſel-ſtreet, Bloomſbury. The ſite is a ſquare, incloſed by a high blank brick-wall, which excludes the houſe from view in every direction on that ſide. At each corner is a turret; and over the great Ionic arch of entrance, a large and handſome

cupola. Upon entering the court, the ſpectator finds himſelf in a grand colonnade of Ionic pillars, extremely chaſte and well proportioned, which extends the whole length of the front. At the eaſt and weſt ends of the quadrangle, are the lodgings of the different officers, connecting the colonnade and muſeum. The fronts of thoſe are neat, but plain, except an Ionic pediment in the centre of each. That of the houſe is of no preciſe order; the walls were erected in 1677, and are of brick, with ſtone ruſtic groins, and unadorned windows, a handſome cornice, with brackets rather than dentals, a Doric door in the centre, and one in each wing, the aſcent to each of which is by many ſteps. On the weſt ſide of the houſe is a flower-garden and a terrace, diſpoſed with much taſte, and ſhaded by numbers of flouriſhing trees and ſhrubs. This communicates with a lawn on the north, that was bounded, till very lately, by the fields; but now the terrace on that ſide is incloſed by large houſes, whoſe walls exclude the rich view from the muſeum, terminated by the varied ſcenes of Highgate, Hampſtead, and the intermediate beautiful landſcape. On the weſt ſide of the lawn is a double avenue of lime trees; but the area is of taſteleſs diſpoſition, and very formal. The weſt end of this garden is now preparing for the erection of the wing lately voted by the traſtees.

Every room in this extenſive manſion affords a copious aſſemblage of objects intereſting to curioſity, and conducive to inſtruction.

The *Reading-room* is ſurrounded by ſhelves of books, ſecured by wire, has a vaulted ceiling, a handſome cornice, and large marble chimney-piece, a weſt window, and three north, with ſeveral portraits on the walls. Facing the fire-place, are the table and chair for the ſuperintending officer, who occupies the latter during the hours for reading, for the neceſſary purpoſe of noticing any deviation from the liberal rules for admiſſion, or injury done to the articles in uſe by the readers. Behind him is another ſmall table, on which a file is placed, with ſquares of paper, on which orders for books and manuſcripts muſt be written and ſigned by the reader, with the day of the month. Two long tables extend north and ſouth on each ſide of the fire-place for the readers. Theſe are covered with green cloth, and are plentifully ſupplied with pens, ink, and reſts for the books. Catalogues are placed on ſhelves within the room; which the reader conſults at his pleaſure, writes his notes from them, pulls the bell-rope near the door, a meſſenger immediately obeys the ſummons, and, in as ſhort a time as poſſible, returns with the wiſhed for book. This application may be made any reaſonable number of times, from

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ten in the morning till four in the afternoon; at which hour all ſtudies ceaſe in the reading-room of the Britiſh Muſeum.

The following "directions reſpecting the reading-room of the Britiſh Muſeum" have been enacted.

The reading-room of the muſeum is open from ten till four every day, except Saturdays and Sundays, and one week at Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide, alſo thankſgiving and faſt days.

Perſons deſirous of admiſſion, are to ſend in their applications, in writing, to the principal librarian, who will lay the ſame before the next general meeting, or committee of truſtees. But, as it might be dangerous in ſo populous a metropolis as London to admit perfect ſtrangers, it is expected that every perſon who applies, if not known to any truſtee or officer, ſhould produce a recommendation from ſome perſons of known and approved character.

In all caſes which require ſuch diſpatch as that time cannot be allowed for making an application to the truſtees, the principal librarian, or in his abſence the ſecretary, is empowered to grant a temporary leave till the next general meeting or committee.

Permiſſions will in general be granted for three months, and none for a longer term than ſix months, and at the expiration of each term freſh application is to be made for a renewal.

Although the librarians be ſtrictly enjoined to uſe all poſſible diſpatch in ſupplying the readers with the printed books or manuſcripts they may apply for; yet, as in ſo extenſive a library it may not be poſſible to find every article immediately, it is recommended to the readers to allow a reaſonable time for the ſearch, eſpecially as to the printed books. It is expected that the library will ſoon be in ſuch a ſtate of arrangement as to render this intimation ſuperfluous.

No reader (except in particular caſes, at the diſcretion of the principal librarian), will be entitled to more than two volumes at a time; but they may be changed as often as he may require.

Readers will be allowed to take one or more extracts from any printed book or manuſcript; but no whole, or greater part of a manuſcript, is to be tranſcribed, without a particular leave from the truſtees. The tranſcribers are not to lay the paper on which they write, on any part of the book or manuſcript they are uſing.

No perſon is, on any pretence whatever, to write on any part of a printed book or manuſcript belonging to the Muſeum; but, if any one ſhould obſerve a defect, or be able to point out an improvement, in ſuch book or manuſcript, he is requeſted

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to ſignify the ſame to the officer in waiting, who will make proper uſe of the information. It may be ſufficient merely to ſuggeſt, that ſilence is abſolutely requiſite in a place dedicated to the purpoſes of ſtudy.

A liſt of "libri deſiderati" lays on the officer's table; where a reader may inſert the title of any book that he finds the houſe does not already poſſeſs; which will be purchaſed at the diſcretion of the truſtees.

In order to bring the whole compact between the public and the officers of this grand national depoſitary under one view, it may be proper to inſert here the "directions to ſuch as apply for tickets to ſee the Britiſh muſeum."

The muſeum is open for inſpection from ten till four every day; except on Saturdays, Sundays, and thankſgiving and faſt days; alſo except one week at Chriſtmas, Eaſter, and Whitſuntide, and the months of Auguſt and September.

The hours of admiſſion are at ten, twelve, and two; and each company may remain in the muſeum two hours, provided they come punctually at the time appointed in their tickets.

Such as are deſirous to obtain admiſſion are to apply at the office for iſſuing tickets, (which will be kept open on the days and hours above mentioned,) and produce a liſt, containing the names of each perſon, not exceeding twelve in number, with their deſcriptions and places of abode. The attendant at the ſaid office will acquaint them what vacancies there are, and immediately deliver to them tickets for ſuch vacant days and hours as ſhall beſt ſuit them. The ſmaller the number of perſons in the liſt, the ſooner they are like to obtain admiſſion. Such as have obtained tickets, and cannot come, are earneſtly deſired to return them at the office as early as poſſible, that others may be admitted in their ſtead.

It is expected that perſons, who viſit the muſeum, be decent and orderly in their appearance and behaviour; the officers being inſtructed to refuſe admiſſion to, or to cauſe to withdraw, any one who ſhall diſregard this caution. Paſt experience has ſhown the neceſſity of this injunction.

In going through the apartments, no one is to take any thing from its place; but, if he wants to examine any article more particularly, he is to apply to an officer, or to the attendant on the company. No children are to be admitted. No money is to be given to the attendants or ſervants.

It would exceed the limits of this work to mention, even in the ſlighteſt manner, all the valuable and curious articles

accumulated in the various rooms; the *veſtibule*, the *firſt room* on the firſt floor, the *ſaloon*, the *room which contains the Cottonian manuſcripts*, the two *Harleian rooms* and the hall, are all adorned with pictures, ſtatues, and curioſities natural and artificial. *Sir William Hamilton's collection* is a moſt ample repoſitory of gods, arms, habiliments, vaſes, and utenſils of every kind, illuſtrative of the times, to which the reader of the ancient claſſics muſt tranſport his imagination. *The Otaheite and South Sea Rooms* are furniſhed by the induſtry and judgment of modern voyagers, with a vaſt variety of natural and artificial curioſities, the produce of thoſe ſavage iſlands, where human nature ſhows the moſt accurate remaining ſpecimen of reaſon juſt tinged with the colouring which diſtinguiſhes it from inſtinct.

In the inexhauſtible fund of information and amuſement which this grand national repoſitory contains, the mind may be employed without fear of laſſitude, and purſue with advantage almoſt every ſpecies of inſtruction.

The care of this ineſtimable collection, as already has been mentioned, is committed to *truſtees*, of whom ſome are by office, ſome by family, and ſome elective. The *official truſtees* are the archbiſhop of Canterbury, the lord chancellor, lord preſident of the council, firſt lord of the treaſury, lord privy ſeal, firſt lord of the admiralty, lord ſteward, lord chamberlain, three ſecretaries of ſtate, biſhop of London, ſpeaker of the Houſe of Commons, chancellor of the exchequer, lord chief juſtice of the King's Bench, maſter of the rolls, lord chief juſtice of the Common Pleas, attorney general, ſolicitor general, preſident of the Royal Society, and preſident of the College of Phyſicians. The *family truſtees* are two each from the families of Sir Robert Cotton, the earl of Oxford (Harley), and Sir Hans Sloane. *The elective truſtees* are fourteen in number. There is a *principal librarian*, and there are three under-librarians, each of whom has an aſſiſtant. Theſe, and *the keeper of the reading room*, have apartments on the ſpot, and a ſufficient number of ſervants is retained for neceſſary purpoſes.

Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce. This inſtitution, formed in 1754, originated in the patriotic zeal of the late Mr. William Shipley, brother of the late biſhop of St. Aſaph; and the active and liberal patronage of the late lord Folkſtone, its firſt preſident; and the late lord Romney, his ſucceſſor, perfected its eſtabliſhment.

The chief objects of the ſociety are, to promote the arts, manufactures, and commerce of the united kingdom, by the donation of premiums and bounties for uſeful inventions, diſcove-

diſcoveries, and improvements. In purſuance of this plan, they have already expended upwards of 50,000 *l.* derived from voluntary ſubſcriptions, and legacies.

The inſtitution conſiſts of a preſident, ſixteen vice-preſidents, two chairmen of each of the committees, a principal and an aſſiſtant ſecretary, a houſe-keeper, a collector, and a meſſenger. The meetings are held at ſeven o'clock in the evening on Wedneſdays from the fourth in October to the firſt in June. The meetings of the committees are appointed by the ſociety to be held on other evenings, as may be convenient. The matters referred to them occaſion their diviſion into ſeveral claſſes; committees of accounts; correſpondence and papers, and of miſcellaneous matters; and ſix of premiums, namely, agriculture, chemiſtry, dyeing and mineralogy; polite and liberal arts; manufactures; mechanics; and Britiſh colonies and trade.

The ordinary proceedings are thus conducted: there are four general meetings in the courſe of each ſeſſion, for the purpoſe of regulating the inſtitution, by eſtabliſhing new rules and orders, and reforming or reſcinding thoſe already in force, if neceſſary: the reſt of the meetings are occupied in receiving and diſcuſſing the reports of the *committees*, and the communications of correſpondents, and candidates for premiums and bounties. Theſe communications are referred, in the order of their dates, to the reſpective committees, to be taken into conſideration, at ſuch meeting as the ſociety may direct, to be ſummoned for that purpoſe; there the merits of the claimants are examined and diſcuſſed, and the reſult being entered on the minutes of the meeting, is reported in order of date to the ſociety, where, after examination at two weekly meetings, the report is finally adopted or rejected. All the committees are open: and although particular members, who may be conſidered as beſt informed in particular claſſes, are choſen as chairmen, and ſpecially ſummoned as attending members; yet every member of the ſociety is entitled to attend, debate, and vote, in every committee.

The *rewards*, beſtowed by the ſociety, are both honorary and pecuniary. Of the firſt, the gold medal is the higheſt; ſilver medals are alſo given as honorary rewards, and both are offered and given as premiums and bounties. In the claſs of the polite arts, gold and ſilver pallets of a greater and leſſer ſize, are alſo propoſed and diſtributed as premiums and bounties. The diſtinction between a premium and a bounty, as given by the ſociety, is this: premiums are annually propoſed by the ſociety in a liſt, each of which, a ſingle candidate,

or ſeveral competitors, may appear to claim. Bounties, either honorary or pecuniary, are rewards the ſociety may think proper to beſtow on meritorious individuals, in reſpect of ſubjects for which no premium has been offered. No invention or improvement, for which a patent has been obtained, can receive either premium or bounty from the ſociety. Inventions and improvements of every kind, on which the ſociety beſtow their rewards, are laid open for public uſe and inſpection. The reſult of this ſyſtem has poſſeſſed the ſociety of the greateſt and moſt valuable repoſitory of models and machines of new invention, and important improvements in others, in every department of the economical and uſeful arts, that is to be found in Europe; and to which free acceſs may always be had, by applying at the ſociety's office.

The premiums and bounties voted by the ſociety, during each ſeſſion, were formerly delivered to the ſucceſsful candidates by the ſecretary, after they had reſpectively been ordered by the ſociety, but are now delivered by the preſident, on the laſt Tueſday in May, in the ſociety's great room, to the ſeveral claimants, or their authorized repreſentatives, who are ſummoned to attend for that purpoſe. This ceremony preſents a moſt intereſting and impreſſive ſpectacle to the numerous viſitors who attend it, among whom are generally found the firſt nobility of both ſexes in the kingdom, together with foreigners, and gentry of the higheſt diſtinction.

The ſociety have alſo improved on their original plan by publiſhing an *annual volume* of the tranſactions, in conſequence of which their correſpondence with perſons of this country and foreigners aſſumes more of a literary character. This department, which includes letters from all parts of the united kingdom, and many of the continent, is conſided to the *committee of correſpondence and papers*, who, after reviſing and arranging the communications, direct their inſertion in the enſuing volume of tranſactions. This meaſure has proved highly beneficial to the intereſts of the ſociety, in making public the general ſervices they have already rendered to their country, as well as the objects which engage their immediate attention. Hence not only thoſe ſubſcribing members who could not aſſiſt at the deliberations of the ſociety, and conſequently remained unacquainted with their proceedings, receive complete information of them; but the attention of the public is alſo regularly called to the promulgation of uſeful and valuable information, relative to the deareſt intereſts of this country in particular, and of mankind in general.

The ſeries of *paintings*, by James Barry, eſq. which occupies the whole circumference of the ſociety's great room, an

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extent of one hundred and fourteen feet by eleven feet ten inches in height, forms not only the greateſt ornament of the inſtitution, but the firſt feature in the character of the Britiſh arts, in the united empire. Its deſign is to illuſtrate this maxim: "that the attainment of happineſs, individual and public, depends on the cultivation of the human faculties." The firſt of the ſix pictures, of which this ſeries is compoſed, repreſents man in his uncultivated ſtate, with its attendant miſery, invited by Orpheus to the enjoyments of ſocial order; the ſecond, a Grecian thankſgiving to Ceres and Bacchus; the third, the victors of the Olympic Games; the fourth, the triumph of the Thames, or Navigation; the fifth, the Society of Arts, &c. diſtributing their rewards; and the ſixth, Elyſium, or the ſtate of retribution. The whole diſplays a fund of the richeſt talent, the higheſt art, and the ſoundeſt morals, that profeſſional excellence ever preſented in one grand effort, to the judgment of the amateur, the eye of the artiſt, or the contemplation of the philanthropiſt. In the poſſeſſion of this work the ſociety may truly exult, they are crowned with the laurels raiſed by their own hands: for this excellent inſtitution firſt called the genius of the country into action, and nurtured its efforts till they became worthy of royal patronage, and, through that, of public favour; and in effecting this patriotic and honourable purpoſe, they have devoted more than one third of the ſums they have expended in rewards on all the other claſſes, to that of polite arts alone.

Members are thus *elected*: Peers of the realm, and lords of parliament, are, on their being propoſed by three members, immediately ballotted for. Every other perſon is alſo recommended by three members, at any meeting of the ſociety, and his name, addition, and place of abode being hung up in the great room, until the next meeting, he is ballotted for: and if two thirds of the members preſent ballot in his favour, he is deemed a perpetual member, on payment of twenty pounds at once, or a ſubſcribing member, on payment of two guineas annually. Every member has the privilege of recommending two auditors at the weekly meetings of the ſociety. He has alſo the uſe of a valuable library, and is entitled to the annual volume of the ſociety's tranſactions. Ladies are admitted as members *

The meetings are held at an excellent houſe purchaſed for that purpoſe in John-ſtreet in the Adelphi.

* The liſt publiſhed December 19th, 1804, in the twenty-ſecond volume of the ſociety's tranſactions, contains 1519 names, of whom 190 are perpetual members.

INCORPORATED SOCIETY OF ARTISTS, AND ROYAL ACADEMY. The ſtate of the polite arts in England at the acceſſion of his preſent majeſty bordered on national reproach. In the preceding reign they had ſuſtained total neglect; but now a more than common attention to the arts began to manifeſt itſelf, not only among the profeſſors, but among the higher ranks of ſociety, which was ſtimulated by the favour ſhewn to the new and popular inſtitution, the "Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce," under whoſe auſpices the annual public exhibitions firſt originated. To this ſtandard modeſt merit was invited to receive ſupport and protection, and ability acquired means of obtaining diſtinction and liberal reward. This bias in favour of the liberal arts was not unnoticed by his majeſty; and when the artiſts formed their plan of uniting in a body to perpetuate their public exhibitions, and aſſumed a permanent character by incorporation, the royal conſent was graciouſly conceded, and their charter granted January 26th, 1765.

From this "Incorporated Society of Artiſts of Great Britain," aroſe the Royal Academy, in conſequence of a diſpute between the directors and the fellows, which occaſioned a ſeparation of intereſts. On the 10th of December 1768, the inſtitution of the preſent Royal Academy was completed, under the immediate patronage of his majeſty; and Sir Joſhua Reynolds, receiving the honour of knighthood on the occaſion, was appointed its firſt preſident. It was inſtituted for the encouragement of deſign, painting, ſculpture, &c.

This academy is under the immediate patronage of the king, and under the direction of forty artiſts of the firſt rank in their ſeveral profeſſions. It furniſhes, in winter, living models of different characters to draw after; and in ſummer models of the ſame kind to paint after. Nine of the ableſt academicians are annually elected out of the forty, whoſe buſineſs it is to attend by rotation, to ſet the figures, to examine the performances of the ſtudents, and to give them neceſſary inſtructions. There are likewiſe four profeſſors, of painting, of architecture, of anatomy, and of perſpective, who annually read public lectures on the ſubjects of their ſeveral departments, beſide a preſident, a council, and other officers.

The admiſſion to this academy is free to all ſtudents, properly qualified, to reap advantage from the ſtudies cultivated in it; and there is an annual exhibition of paintings, ſculptures, and deſigns, to which all artiſts of diſtinguiſhed merit may ſend ſpecimens. The money paid as the price of admiſſion to theſe exhibitions has, of late years, proved fully ſufficient to ſupport the expenſes of the eſtabliſhment, but at its commencement it

was aſſiſted by royal bounty to the amount of 5000*l.* It is only neceſſary to recollect the numerous productions which have paſſed in review before the public, ſince the formation of theſe eſtabliſhments for the encouragement of the elegant arts, to be convinced of the ſound policy of giving all poſſible energy to thoſe exertions of native genius, which in ſo ſhort a time have turned the tide of public approbation, and added ſignal glory to the Britiſh name, by breaking through all the obſtacles raiſed by prejudice, ignorance, or malice.

The Society of Artiſts ſtill exiſts; its eſtabliſhment is in the Strand. The Royal Academy had at firſt its rooms in Pall-Mall, but afterward a magnificent ſet of apartments was allotted to it in Somerſet Houſe.

British Institution. In the exhibitions at the rooms of the Royal Academy, it invariably occurred that too great a number of ſubjects was preſented to allow of the diſtinct contemplation of every picture, or of every claſs, and the great proportion of portraits prevented the favourable diſplay of hiſtorical pieces. To obviate theſe complaints, and to afford opportunities for the artiſts of this country to gain the advantages reſulting from the frequent view of their productions by the public, a new ſociety was formed in the year 1805, under the name of the Britiſh Inſtitution, where hiſtorical pieces by Britiſh artiſts, and intended for ſale, can alone be exhibited.

A large ſubſcription was ſpeedily made for the generous purpoſe of encouraging native genius, and a houſe in Pall Mall, erected by alderman Boydell for the exhibition of pictures painted for his publication of Shakſpeare, and afterward diſpoſed of by lottery, was purchaſed for the inſtitution.

By its fundamental regulations, the executive government is confined to a *committee* of ſixteen of the noblemen and gentlemen who are of the claſſes of *hereditary governors*, having ſubſcribed one hundred guineas, and of *life governors*, having ſubſcribed fifty guineas in one ſum. A committee of *viſitors* of the ſame number and order of ſubſcribers form alſo a branch of the eſtabliſhment; together with a *treaſurer*, *ſecretary*, and *keeper*, with an adequate number of neceſſary ſervants.

The property of the inſtitution is veſted in the hereditary governors, ſubject to the privileges of the life governors, and of the annual and life ſubſcribers.

Every *governor* has a right of perſonal admiſſion to the inſtitution, and of introducing two friends each day to the exhibition and gallery.

Annual ſubſcribers of five guineas have alſo the ſame privileges.

Annual ſubſcribers of three guineas have perſonal admiſſion, with one friend daily.

Annual ſubſcribers of one guinea, or ten guineas in one ſum as life ſubſcribers, have only perſonal admiſſion to the exhibition and gallery. Ladies may be ſubſcribers in the claſs of governors, and vote by proxy. They are alſo life or annual ſubſcribers, in which claſſes none are qualified as voters on any buſineſs of the inſtitution. The *treaſurer* is annually choſen, and gives ſecurity to the directors, with two ſureties in the ſum of 5000 *l.* The *keeper*, who has the care of the premiſes, and the whole property of the inſtitution, the arrangement and conducting of the exhibition and ſales of pictures, &c. in the gallery, together with the direction and ſuperintendance of all the ſervants of the eſtabliſhment, holds that office during pleaſure; under the ſecurity of his own bond in the ſum of one thouſand pounds, and that of a friend in the ſame ſum.

The terms of *admiſſion of pictures* for exhibition and ſale, in the gallery of the inſtitution, are the ſame as at the Royal Academy, the artiſt being only at the expenſe and trouble of ſending them, and of taking them away at the cloſe of the exhibition. No artiſt can have any ſhare in the direction of the inſtitution; but they are at liberty to become ſubſcribers. Pictures, &c. that have been exhibited at the Royal Academy, or in any other exhibition, are eligible to be received and exhibited in the Britiſh gallery, if approved of by the committee of directors. No deduction whatſoever is made on any picture or other work of art ſold in this gallery; nor on the ſale of any picture, nor can they be removed till the cloſe of the exhibition.

Beſide theſe very advantageous offers to artiſts, the patrons of the inſtitution have extended the benefit, by lending the beſt pictures of the ancient maſters to be placed in the room during the receſs of the regular exhibition, and copied by young artiſts.

Gresham College. This eſtabliſhment for the diffuſion of inſtruction in the metropolis, owes its origin to Sir Thomas Greſham, a very wealthy merchant, who, dying in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, bequeathed to the corporation of London one moiety of the buildings of the Royal Exchange, upon truſt that they and their ſucceſſors ſhould every year give and diſtribute, for the ſuſtentation of four perſons, to be choſen by the corporation, qualified to read lectures of divinity, aſtronomy, muſic, and geometry, in his own dwelling-houſe, in the pariſh of St. Helen's, Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, and St. Peter's the Poor, the ſum of 200*l.*; that is, to every of the ſaid readers the ſum of 50*l.* yearly each for their ſalaries and ſtipends. The other

moiety

moiety of the ſaid buildings he gave to the mercers' company; in truſt yearly to pay for the finding and ſuſtentation of three perſons, by them to be choſen, to read lectures of law, phyſic, and rhetoric, with the like ſtipend. And he gave his manſion-houſe, with the garden, ſtables, and appurtenances, to the corporation, and the mercers' company, to hold in common for the abode of the ſeven perſons by them appointed to read lectures.

This patriotic and benevolent bequeſt was not carried into effect without ſome oppoſition, and the progreſs of the undertaking was impeded by ſome quarrels between the profeſſors and the mercers' company, and ſome parochial diſputes; but at this time, the lectures continue to be read daily in term time, at a room over the Royal Exchange, the rotation being, *Monday*, divinity; *Tueſday*, civil law; *Wedneſday*, aſtronomy and muſic; *Thurſday*, geometry; *Friday*, rhetoric; and *Saturday*, phyſic. The profeſſors have 100*l.* a year each. The *terms* kept for reading theſe lectures are peculiar to Greſham college. They are five in the year; the firſt begins the Monday before Trinity term, of the common law, and continues thirty days; after which term a vacancy or intermiſſion is granted for private ſtudy and other buſineſs, and for avoiding the concourſe of people in the heat of ſummer. The ſecond term begins the firſt Monday in September, and continues a fortnight. The third term begins the Monday before Michaelmas term, and laſts till and ends with the ſame term. The fourth begins the Monday next after the Epiphany, and continues for three-ſcore days. The fifth term begins the Monday ſevennight after Eaſter day, and ends with Eaſter term.

The Royal Institution. In the year 1800, a ſociety was formed under the patronage of his Majeſty, and incorporated by royal charter, called the Royal Inſtitution of Great Britain for diffuſing the knowledge, and the facilitating the general introduction of uſeful mechanical inventions and improvements; and for teaching, by courſes of philoſophical lectures and experiments, the application of ſcience to the common purpoſes of life. Of this undertaking an account was given in a proſpectus, which, with a copy of the charter, was delivered to the public. It ſtated the various impediments which oppoſed the progreſs of improvement, and then proceeded; three diſtinct methods ſuggeſt themſelves for the removal or diminution of the difficulties ſtated above: 1ſt, To give premiums to inventors, which is already done by the ſociety for the encouragement of arts, &c. 2dly, To allow temporary monopolies, which is done by the grant of patents. 3dly, To diffuſe the knowledge, and facilitate the introduction of uſeful mechanical inventions and improvements,

improvements, which is propoſed to be done by the Royal Inſtitution.

"In the houſe lately purchaſed in Albemarle-ſtreet by the managers, it is intended to exhibit to the public the completeſt working models, or conſtructions of the full ſize, of all ſuch new and valuable inventions as are capable of being applied to the common purpoſes of life. By this arrangement, thoſe who adopt them may readily determine, if any failure happened in their experiments, whether the miſtakes of workmen, the management of ſervants, or the principle of the invention have been the cauſe. Such a repoſitory muſt alſo be of infinite uſe to artificers in furniſhing models, and muſt enable the inquirer to obtain a thorough acquaintance with the nature and principles of what he wiſhes to imitate. Whatever is viſible and tangible addreſſes itſelf more forcibly to the underſtanding than can be conveyed by any graphic or written deſcription: it is not, however, intended to neglect the aid of the latter; and, accordingly, detailed accounts or deſcriptions, accompanied with ſuitable drawings, will alſo be exhibited by way of illuſtration.

"Arrangements will alſo be made, and correſpondence eſtabliſhed, for obtaining a knowledge of new inventions, both at home and abroad. Viſitations of manufactories, and examinations of the various proceſſes in the arts, are likewiſe intended; and to the growing maſs of inſtruction, which may ariſe from theſe ſources, the managers will add a library of all the beſt publications on the ſubjects for which this inſtitution is eſtabliſhed.

"For teaching *the application of ſcience to the uſeful purpoſes of life*, a room is fitted up for philoſophical lectures and experiments; a complete laboratory and philoſophical apparatus, with the neceſſary inſtruments, are provided; and men of the firſt eminence in ſcience engaged to officiate in this eſſential department.

"*Chemiſtry*, with the aid of a laboratory, and complete apparatus for the ſeveral proceſſes, is taught in the moſt ſimple and perſpicuous manner; and the elementary knowledge ſo indiſpenſable to the intelligent manufacturer, is connected with the great operations of art and trade.

"From the vaſt field of individual operations or ſeparate manufactories, the inquirer is led to greater works of more general conſideration, which include not only the objects of mechanics and chemiſtry ſtrictly taken, but likewiſe thoſe of commercial operation and political economy, as the ſtructure of roads and forms of vehicles, the eſtabliſhment of canals, the improvement

ment of rivers, harbours, and coaſts, the art of war, and various objects connected with it."

The *funds* of the inſtitution ariſe, 1ſt, From fifty guineas paid by each *hereditary ſubſcriber*, who is named a proprietor; 2d, From ten guineas paid by each life ſubſcriber; 3d, From two guineas paid by each annual ſubſcriber; 4th, From particular donations and legacies.

A *proprietor* has an hereditary *tranſferable ſhare* in the houſe and all the property belonging to it, has a vote in the election of managers and viſitors, and two tranſferable tickets of admiſſion to the eſtabliſhment and lectures. A *life ſubſcriber* has a ticket of admiſſion for life, not tranſferable. An *annual ſubſcriber* is entitled to a ſimilar ticket during the continuance of his ſubſcription. The three claſſes are alike open to ladies and gentlemen, and every claſs of ſubſcribers has the privilege in common of having copies of models or drawings made (at their own expenſe) from thoſe belonging to the inſtitution.

In the houſe in Albemarle-ſtreet, St. James's, the principal apartments are appropriated in the following way: thoſe on the ground floor are one for the reception of the ſubſcribers in general; and it is there where the moſt eſteemed periodical and ſcientific journals, foreign and domeſtic, lie for peruſal, and where alſo a library is formed; the other is uſed as a board room for the managers, and alſo as an occaſional place of meeting for the viſitors.

Two rooms on the firſt floor have been laid together, and formed a temporary lecture room, but is to be for the library; oppoſite is the repoſitory for the philoſophical apparatus uſed at the lectures. The offices below are ſpacious, and ſuitable to many uſeful purpoſes,

The plan alſo comprehends the formation of a complete ſcientific theatre, or lecture room, a capacious repoſitory, co-extenſive with the theatre, for the expoſition of mechanical models and improvements, and a complete laboratory.

The lectures at the Royal Inſtitution have been, from its firſt foundation, attended with eager curioſity by perſons of the firſt diſtinction in the faſhionable as well as the learned world.

Journals were alſo publiſhed of the proceedings, which, it was declared, ſhould be excluſively devoted to the diffuſion of the knowledge of new and intereſting ſcientific diſcoveries, and of uſeful improvements in mechanics, arts, and manufactures; and particularly in making known all ſuch new inventions and contrivances as tend to facilitate labour, render it more productive, to promote domeſtic economy, and increaſe the conveniences, comforts, and enjoyments of life. Neither political diſcuſſions, nor religious diſputes, nor the common news of the day were ever to find a place in theſe journals; nor the common advertiſements

vertiſements of individuals ever to be publiſhed in them, on any pretext whatever. They occaſionally contained copper plates, or diagrams cut in wood, for the purpoſes of illuſtration; and were ſold at a price merely ſufficient to pay for the compiling and printing.

Numerous committees were formed for giving effect to the various plans of the inſtitution, and the liſt of proprietors and ſubſcribers filled with prodigious rapidity.

The inſtitution is placed under the government and direction of a preſident, a committee of fifteen managers, and a committee of viſitors of the ſame number; to theſe are added a treaſurer, ſecretary, profeſſor of chemiſtry, librarian, and ſome other officers.

The London Institution. The London Inſtitution was formed in the autumn of 1805, by the indefatigable exertions of a few public ſpirited-individuals. The temporary houſe, till the managers can procure a more ſuitable place, is in the Old Jewry.

The deſign of this inſtitution is to promote the diffuſion of ſcience, literature, and the arts, its views at preſent being confined to three objects; viz. the acquiſition of a valuable and extenſive library; the diffuſion of uſeful knowledge by means of lectures and experiments; and the eſtabliſhment of a reading room, where the foreign and domeſtic journals, and other periodical works, and the beſt pamphlets and new publications are provided for the uſe of the proprietors and ſubſcribers.

The government of this inſtitution is veſted in the committee of managers, conſiſting of the preſident, four vice-preſidents, twenty managers, and the ſecretary. The proprietors, the number of whom is limited to one thouſand, paid ſeventy-five guineas for each ſhare, and the life ſubſcribers twenty-five guineas. The proprietors are intitled to perſonal admiſſion to the library, lectures, and reading rooms, and to one tranſferable ticket, intitling the bearer to the ſame privileges. The life ſubſcribers have perſonal admiſſion only.

On entering the houſe, the large room behind the hall is fitted up for the purpoſe of the proprietors and ſubſcribers reading the Engliſh newſpapers; the room on the right for the foreign journals and newſpapers; and that on the left for the Engliſh monthly publications and modern popular books.

The library is on the firſt floor, and contains a numerous and well-ſelected variety of ſcarce and valuable claſſical, hiſtorical, and miſcellaneous books.

Board of Agriculture. This board, formed on ſcientific principles, for a purpoſe of acknowledged and general utility, owes its origin to Sir John Sinclair. In the courſe of many active

active inquiries into the revenue and other ſubjects connected with the proſperity of the Britiſh nation, and of many earneſt endeavours to meliorate the condition of the country at large, both by his perſonal labours and the formation of uſeful ſocieties, he formed an opinion that, unleſs a board of agriculture were inſtituted for the ſole purpoſe of ſuperintending the improvement of the ſheep and wool of the country, and other objects connected either with the cultivation or with the paſturage of the ſoil, the exertions of any private ſociety muſt ſoon ſlacken, and its labours become uſeleſs and inefficient; whereas under the protection of government, and the ſuperintendance of ſuch a board, properly conſtituted, (more eſpecially if formed of perſons, who gratuitouſly devoted their ſervices to promote ſuch valuable and truly national intereſts,) every field would ſoon be cultivated to the beſt advantage, and every ſpecies of ſtock would ſoon be brought to their greateſt poſſible perfection.

Fully impreſſed with the importance of the inſtitution thus hinted at, he came to London in December 1792, and communicated it to the miniſter. As Sir John was in oppoſition, his hopes of ſucceſs were not very ſanguine; but Mr. Dundas, with characteriſtic liberality, became ſo ſatisfied on the ſubject, that in the progreſs of the affair through the Houſe of Commons, he aided it with his utmoſt ability and influence. The reſiſtance to the meaſure was made by the oppoſition party, who imagined that ſome deep plot of the miniſters, or ſome ſcheme of corruption or influence was at the bottom. An addreſs to the King was however carried, requiring the eſtabliſhment of a board of agriculture, the expenſe being limited to 3000 *l.* per annum, and the projector was appointed its firſt preſident.

The plan of the board is thus ſtated by Sir John Sinclair himſelf. "It is propoſed that the Board ſhall conſiſt of twenty-four members, in the ſame manner as the preſent Board of Trade *, but not to be reſtricted to members of his Majeſty's Privy Council, as the preſident of the Royal Society, and other perſons, who are not in either houſe of parliament, may be uſeful members. The advantages of a great number of members are, firſt, that it totally precludes every poſſible idea of giving ſalaries, which would not anſwer any real purpoſe of utility, and would at the ſame time make the inſtitution expenſive. Secondly, it would give occupation of a public nature to many reſpectable individuals, both in and out of parliament, who are anxious to be employed in public buſineſs, but who at

* With, however, an unlimited number of honorary and correſponding members.

preſent

preſent have no particular object, to which they can direct their attention.

"The expenſe of ſuch a board may be eſtimated at about 3000 *l.* per annum, to be laid out in the following manner:

	Per Ann.
1. Expenſe of the houſe, a ſecretary, and two clerks, (for the correſpondence will be very extenſive,) may be ſtated at - -	£500 0 0
2. Stationary may amount to - - -	200 0 0
3. Foreign correſpondence reſpecting the agriculture of other countries, procuring foreign books on agriculture, ſeeds, animals, and implements of huſbandry - - - -	300 0 0
4. The expenſe of ſending perſons to make regular annual ſurveys of the ſtate of agriculture and ſheep-farming, all over the kingdom, for the purpoſe of eſtabliſhing correſpondence, of aſcertaining what improvements have been made in different parts of the country, the principal defects of each diſtrict in the management of their farms, &c. - -	500 0 0
5. The expenſe of printing and circulating thoſe ſurveys, and other works that may be publiſhed under the ſanction of the board, together with honorary rewards to correſponding members, who try, in different parts of the country, ſuch experiments for the improvement of wool, &c. as may be recommended by the board - - - -	500 0 0
6. The expenſe of collecting the materials of a ſtatiſtical ſurvey of England, to be carried on under the Board of Agriculture -	500 0 0
7. Incidental Expenſes - - -	500 0 0
	£3000 0 0

"The above ſum, it is believed, will be found adequate to the purpoſes in view; and in order to obviate every poſſible objection on the ſcore of expenſe, it is propoſed to eſtabliſh ſuch a board for five years only, merely by way of experiment, to be afterwards continued, in the event alone of its anſwering the important object for which it was inſtituted. It was at firſt intended to propoſe ſome additional expenſe, to be laid out in premiums; but, upon farther conſideration, it was judged more adviſeable to leave the giving of *money* in premiums

miums to private ſocieties, and reſtrict the donations of a public board, to honorary rewards.

"That the public ought not to grudge ſuch a ſum for ſo neceſſary a purpoſe, need hardly be long dwelt upon. For objects of general utility, parliament has often, and ought always to exert itſelf. The Board of Longitude has had various conſiderable ſums laid out as premiums under its authority, for rewarding ſuch as have made any important diſcovery in the point to which its attention is directed. The culture of flax has been encouraged by public bounties. And where is the object ſo well entitled to national countenance and ſupport, as that of promoting the general intereſts of agriculture, and of aſcertaining the beſt means of bringing it to perfection?

"The advantages of ſuch a board are obvious.

"I. It is well known, that there are many ſocieties for the improvement of agriculture, in all its various branches, already ſcattered over the kingdom, and many more would probably be eſtabliſhed, were parliament to ſanction the object of ſuch ſocieties by its approbation. The eſtabliſhment of ſuch a board, there is reaſon to believe, would be of incredible ſervice in keeping up the ſpirit of ſuch inſtitutions, in giving them a proper direction, and in procuring for them more weight and conſequence in thoſe parts of the country where they exiſt. Beſides, at preſent any improvements made by ſuch ſocieties are only known within their own narrow ſphere; whereas they might be rapidly ſpread over the whole kingdom through the medium of a board of agriculture, with whom every one of them would be deſirous of correſponding.

"II. In regard to the idea, that the whole had better be carried on by a private ſociety, it is to be obſerved, that *no private ſociety* can ever have the ſame weight, either with the farmer at home, or with foreign countries (from which undoubtedly much information may be obtained), as *a public inſtitution.* In the ſecond place, no private ſociety could be intruſted like a public Board, with a power of receiving and tranſmitting letters, and even packets, duty free, without which, at the ſame time, it could not be of general benefit; for it is only by frequently diſperſing ſmall tracts, and not voluminous publications, that the farmer can beſt be inſtructed and rouſed to activity and exertion. In the third place, a public board may eaſily collect into one focus, all the knowledge and information that may be acquired by a great number of ſmall ſocieties ſcattered over the kingdom; may make them uſeful to each other, and mutually co-operate for the general benefit of the country; but that is a degree of authority, which no private ſociety, however conſtituted, could poſſibly acquire.

"III. It

"III. It is now found that an union of husbandry and sheep-farming is the best means of bringing agriculture to perfection; whilst, at the same time, it furnishes the raw materials for our most valuable manufacture. By carrying the improvement of our wool, both in regard to quantity and quality, as far as the soil and climate of Great Britain will admit of (which, if such a board were established, might be done in the space of a few years), there is every reason to believe that three millions *per annum*, in manufactured articles, will be added to the national wealth, in addition to the benefit which the soil will receive from an improved system of husbandry.

"IV. But the part of the plan from which the greatest and most important benefits are to be expected, is that of carrying on a statistical survey of England, for the purpose of ascertaining the real political situation of that part of the kingdom, in every point of view, respecting which a statesman would wish to have information. In the short period of about three years, such a survey of Scotland will be completed, by the voluntary exertions of the clergy of North Britain; and in the space of five years, a similar survey of England may be brought to a conclusion. The object of such a survey would be, to ascertain the general state of the agriculture, the manufactures, and the commerce of the country, the means of improvement of which they are respectively capable; the amount of the population of the state, and the causes of its increase or decrease: the manner in which the territory of the country is possessed and cultivated; the nature and amount of the various productions of the soil, the value of the personal wealth of stock of the inhabitants, and how it can be augmented; the diseases to which the people are subject, their causes, and their cure; the occupations of the people, where they are entitled to encouragement, and where they ought to be suppressed; the condition of the poor, the best mode of maintaining them, and of giving them employment; the state of schools, and other institutions formed for purposes of public utility; the state of the villages and of the towns in the kingdom, and the regulations best calculated for their police and good government; and lastly, the state of the manners and morals, and the general character of the people, and the articles in regard to which their situation is most capable of melioration and improvement.

"To conclude, it is only by means of such inquiries, that any society can possibly expect to enjoy all that political happiness to which it must naturally aspire. By ascertaining facts with minuteness and accuracy, the real state of the country must be made known, and the means of its future improvement pointed out. Every field, it may be expected, will then be cultivated

to

to the beſt advantage, and every meaſure will be taken, that can beſt tend to promote the general intereſts of the community."

That this eſtabliſhment has been attended with conſpicuous ſucceſs and effects eminently beneficial, no one who peruſes the publications of the Board, and reflects on the increaſed energy with which agricultural improvement has been purſued ſince its formation can doubt. The great and moſt extenſively uſeful attempt of the baronet, that of obtaining a minute ſtatiſtical account of the whole kingdom, could not, however, be effected. The ſum allowed by government was inſufficient, and as the privilege of franking was not granted to the Board, it could not ſuſtain the heavy charge of poſtage, which muſt have been incurred. It was alſo found impoſſible, out of the limited ſum of 3000 *l.* per annum, to furniſh copies of the reports to all members of either houſe of parliament who ſhould apply for them, without the aid of a ſubſcription of ten guineas from each.

This outline will exhibit to the reader the nature of the moſt general and popular inſtitutions for the diffuſion of knowledge and taſte, and encouragement of the arts and ſciences; but it is not to be ſuppoſed that it is any thing approaching to an enumeration of the vaſt variety of eſtabliſhments and undertakings which public combination and private enterprize have formed for theſe purpoſes. Muſeums, lecture-rooms, libraries, and laboratories are eſtabliſhed in every part of the kingdom, nor is there an art, or a topic of human curioſity, which is not illuſtrated and familiarized by lectures and models. Every town in the kingdom poſſeſſes either a *book ſociety*, where publications of merit are bought by ſubſcription for the uſe of the parties, or a *circulating library*, where they are purchaſed by the proprietor of the houſe, and lent to readers, in conſideration of an annual or other ſubſcription. Works of every deſcription are daily iſſued from the preſs, the reviews of literary productions are numerous, and conducted with ſpirit and ability, and in various periodical publications, the progreſs of the uſeful and ornamental arts is accurately traced, while the great intereſts, or amuſing levities of human life furniſh matter to a great number of daily, weekly, and other papers.

Liberty of the Press. The liberty of the preſs is juſtly conſidered one of the moſt invaluable bleſſings attending the free and happy conſtitution of Great Britain. This privilege, however valuable, muſt be enjoyed, like all other privileges, with ſuch temperance as may prevent it from degenerating into abuſe; for, in fact, they who ſupport the unbridled licen-

tiouſneſs of the preſs are the greateſt enemies to its real liberty. Where the preſs is exempt from all reſtraints, its perpetual offence becomes unbearable; irritation is ſucceeded by violence; the peace of ſociety is deſtroyed; and the majority of reaſoning men find it more eaſy to ſubmit to a tyrannical reſtraint, which at firſt gives relief, although in the end it is deſtructive of liberty, than to endure the miſeries ariſing from continual hoſtility, inflamed by the rancorous effuſions of a ſcurrilous and unreſtrained preſs. Fortunately for this country, its progreſs in this matter has not been from exceſſive liberty to ſevere reſtraint, but from abſolute ſlavery to the only rationa freedom that can be attained, the liberty of doing whatever ſeems good to the individual, ſubject to the reſponſibility impoſed by the law. How this operates with reſpect to libels has been mentioned in the preceding volume.

Licensing. A reſtraint on the general freedom of the preſs was empowered by the ſtat. 14 Charles II. which expired in 1692; and was ever conſidered as a hard law, ſince it every where countenanced the king's excluſive privilege of printing, reſtrained the number of preſſes, rendered the licenſing of books neceſſary, and impoſed heavy penalties and forfeitures. By this ſtatute, which recited that printing is a matter of public care, it was enacted, that no private perſon whatſoever ſhould print, or cauſe to be printed, any book or pamphlet, unleſs the ſame ſhould be firſt entered in the book of the Regiſtrar of the Company of Stationers in London; except acts of parliament, proclamations, and ſuch other books and papers as ſhould be appointed to be printed by virtue of the king's ſign manual, or under the hand of one of the ſecretaries of ſtate; and unleſs the ſame ſhould be firſt licenſed by the ſeveral perſons therein directed; that is to ſay, all books concerning the common law were to be printed by the allowance of the Lord Chancellor, the Lords Chief Juſtices and Lord Chief Baron, or one of them; of hiſtory, concerning the ſtate of this realm, or other books concerning any affairs of ſtate, by one of the ſecretaries of ſtate; of heraldry, by appointment of the Earl Marſhal, or if there ſhould be no Earl Marſhal, then by two of the kings of arms; all other books, whether of divinity, phyſick, philoſophy, or other ſcience or art whatſoever, by the archbiſhop of Canterbury, or biſhop of London, or by their appointment reſpectively, or, in the univerſities, by the chancellor or vice-chancellor there, provided that the ſaid chancellor or vice-chancellor ſhould not meddle either with books of common law, or matters of ſtate or government, nor any book, the right of printing which ſolely and properly belonged to any particular perſon. And the printers were to ſet their names,

and declare the name of the author if required. But there was a proviſo, that nothing therein ſhould extend to infringe any the juſt rights and privileges of either of the univerſities, touching the licenſing or printing of books therein; nor ſhould extend to prejudice the juſt rights and privileges granted by the king, or any of his royal predeceſſors, to any perſon or perſons under the great ſeal or otherwiſe, but that they might exerciſe ſuch rights and privileges according to their reſpective grants.

MODERN RESTRAINTS. From the time when this act expired, printing was under no controul or reſtraint, except the general reſponſiblity for the publication of libels; nor is it at this day; but in order to prevent the clandeſtine fabrication of improper publications, which might be diſtributed by perſons too obſcure and inſignificant for effectual puniſhment, the 39th Geo. III. c. 79, made to prevent the miſchiefs meditated by certain ſeditious ſocieties, recites and enacts, among other things, as follows: "And whereas the ſocieties aforeſaid, and many others have cauſed to be publiſhed in great quantities, divers printed papers of an irreligious, treaſonable, and ſeditious nature, tending to revile religion, and excite hatred and contempt of his majeſty's perſon, government, and laws, and it is highly important that it ſhould be known by whom ſuch papers are printed: It is enacted that every perſon having any printing preſs or types for printing, ſhall cauſe notice thereof, ſigned in the preſence of, and atteſted by one witneſs, to be delivered to the clerk of the peace, or his deputy, who ſhall grant a certificate thereof, for which ſhall be paid one ſhilling and no more; and ſhall file ſuch notice, and ſhall tranſmit an atteſted copy thereof to a ſecretary of ſtate. And every perſon who, not having delivered ſuch notice, and obtained ſuch certificate, ſhall keep or uſe any printing preſs or types for printing, or having delivered ſuch notice, and obtained ſuch certificate, ſhall uſe any preſs or types in any other place than that expreſſed in ſuch notice, ſhall forfeit 20 *l.* Provided that nothing herein ſhall extend to his majeſty's printer, or to the two univerſities. And every letter-founder, or maker or ſeller of type for printing, or of printing preſſes, ſhall give notice of his intention of carrying on ſuch buſineſs to the clerk of the peace, or his deputy, who ſhall thereupon grant a certificate thereof, for which ſhall be paid one ſhilling and no more, and ſhall file ſuch notice, and ſhall tranſmit an atteſted copy thereof to a ſecretary of ſtate: and every perſon who ſhall make or ſell any type for printing, or printing preſs, without having given ſuch notice, and obtained ſuch certificate, ſhall forfeit 20 *l.* And every perſon who ſhall ſell types for printing, or any

printing preſs as aforeſaid, ſhall keep an account in writing of all perſons to whom any ſuch ſhall be ſold, and ſhall produce ſuch account to any juſtice who ſhall in writing demand the ſame; on pain of forfeiting 20*l.* And every perſon who ſhall print any paper or book, which ſhall be meant or intended to be publiſhed or diſperſed, whether ſold or given away, ſhall print upon the front of every ſuch paper, if printed on one ſide only, and upon the firſt and laſt leaves of every paper or book which ſhall conſiſt of more than one leaf, in legible characters, his name, and the name of the city, town, pariſh or place; and alſo the name (if any) of the ſquare, ſtreet, lane, court, or place in which his dwelling houſe, or uſual place of abode ſhall be; and in default, ſhall for every copy of ſuch paper ſo publiſhed or diſperſed, forfeit 20*l.* and alſo every perſon aſſiſting therein ſhall forfeit the like penalty. Provided that nothing herein ſhall extend to any papers printed by the authority and for the uſe of either houſe of parliament. Nor ſhall any perſon who ſhall diſperſe or aſſiſt in diſperſing any paper, printed under the authority of the head officers of any of the principal officers of ſtate, or of any board of revenue, or the army or navy, without the regulations of the aforeſaid act being complied with, previous to the paſſing of the ſaid act, be liable to the penalties of the ſaid act. And any perſon who ſhall print any paper for hire or profit, ſhall keep one copy thereof at leaſt, on which he ſhall write or print the name and place of abode of the perſon by whom he is employed, and ſhall keep the ſame for ſix calendar months next after the printing thereof, which he ſhall produce to any juſtice who, within that time, ſhall require to ſee the ſame; on pain of forfeiting for every ſuch neglect 20*l.* And any perſon to whom or in whoſe preſence, any printed paper not having the name and place of abode of any perſon printed thereon, ſhall be ſold or offered for ſale, or given *gratis*, or offered ſo to be; or ſhall be paſted, fixed or left in any public place, or in any other manner expoſed to public view, may take and convey ſuch offender before a juſtice, or may deliver him to a conſtable or other peace officer to be carried before a juſtice, to the intent that he may hear and determine whether ſuch perſon has been guilty of any offence againſt this act. Provided, that nothing herein ſhall extend to any engraving, or to the printing by letter preſs of the name, or the name and addreſs, buſineſs or profeſſion of any perſon, and the articles in which he deals; or to any papers for the ſale of eſtates or goods by auction or otherwiſe; nor to alter any rule, regulation, or proviſion in any act of parliament reſpecting the printing, publiſhing, or diſtributing any newſpaper, or other printed paper. And if any juſtice ſhall, from informa-

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tion on oath, have reaſon to ſuſpect that any printing preſs, or types for printing, are uſed, or kept for uſe, without notice given, and certificate obtained as hereby required, or in any place not included in ſuch notice and certificate, he may, by warrant, empower any conſtable in the day time, with ſuch perſon as ſhall be called to his aſſiſtance, to ſearch any houſe, room, or place, and to ſeize and carry away every printing preſs found therein, together with all the types and other articles thereto belonging and uſed in printing, and all printed paper there found. Proſecutions to be commenced within three months; penalties under 20*l.* may be recovered in a ſummary way before magiſtrates; and the monies recovered are to be applied half to the king and half to the informer.

COPY-RIGHT. Originally the Crown was inveſted with the prerogative of granting patents for the printing of books, and this right, however injurious and oppreſſive to the ſubject, is reſerved to the king in the ſtatute (21 Jas. I. c. 3.) againſt monopolies. This prerogative, however, was much diſputed, and although many deciſions were given in favour of patentees, yet the right became at length greatly reſtricted, and at laſt limited to a very ſmall number of objects. The general rule eſtabliſhed was, that if a book had no certain author, the king had the property of the copy, and might grant it to whom he thought fit; hence almanacks, tranſlations of the Bible, and the book of Common Prayer, were beſtowed by royal grant, although it has been ſhaken by legal deciſions with reſpect to almanacks, and is frequently, and eaſily evaded with reſpect to Bibles and books of Common Prayer.

For protection of the rights of authors to the works produced by their own induſtry or genius, proviſion was made by the 8 Anne, c. 19., and further extended by the 41ſt Geo. 3. c. 107., and the 54th Geo. 3. c. 156. The effect of theſe ſtatutes is, that the author of any book and his aſſigns ſhall have the ſole liberty of printing it for twenty-eight years, to commence from the day of publiſhing; and ſhould the author ſurvive that term, the right reverts to him for life. If any perſon within that time ſhall print, reprint, or import any ſuch book without the conſent of the proprietor, or ſhall knowingly publiſh it without ſuch conſent, the offender ſhall be liable to damages, with double coſts, to be recovered in a ſpecial action on the caſe, ſhall forfeit the books and ſheets to the proprietor, who ſhall damaſk and make them waſte paper, and ſhall forfeit 3*d.* for every ſheet found in his cuſtody, either printed or printing, one moiety to the crown, the other to him who will ſue in any court at Weſtminſter. In conſideration of this protection, and for the advancement of learning, the proprietors of books are obliged, on demand regularly made, to ſend a copy of every

work, with its maps and prints, to each of the following repoſitories of learning. The Britiſh Muſeum, Sion College, the Bodleian Library, the public library at Cambridge, the library of the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, the libraries of the four Univerſities of Scotland, and Trinity College, and the King's Inns libraries in Dublin.

It was determined by the court of King's Bench in the great caſe of Millar *v.* Taylor, that an excluſive right in authors exiſted by the common law. But afterwards in the caſe of Donaldſon *v.* Becket, before the Houſe of Lords, which was finally determined 12th February 1774, it was holden, that no copy-right ſubſiſts in authors after the expiration of the ſeveral terms created by the above ſtatute of Queen Anne. In conſequence of this deciſion an act was paſſed in the following year for enabling the two univerſities in England, the four univerſities in Scotland, and the colleges of Eton, Weſtminſter, and Wincheſter, to hold in perpetuity their copy-right in books given or bequeathed to them by authors, or their repreſentatives, upon truſt that the profits ariſing from the printing or reprinting of ſuch books ſhall be applied as a fund for the advancement of learning, and other beneficial purpoſes of education.

If an author or his aſſignee ſeeks for penalties under the above ſtatute, he will not recover them, unleſs he has complied with its directions, by entering the title of his work in the books of the Stationers' Company at Stationers' Hall, London, and delivering the copies as in the act directed. But, in any caſe, the court of Chancery will grant an injunction to reſtrain a piratical publiſher from continuing to ſell a work purloined from another, and will oblige him to account for the profits, and that, in ſome caſes, with coſts.

It has been adjudged that muſical publications are within the protection of the ſtatute; and the privileges granted to authors are extended to the inventors of prints and engravings, for the term of eight-and-twenty years, by the ſtatutes 8 Geo. II. c. 13. and 7 Geo. III. c. 38., beſides an action for damages, with double coſts, by ſtat. 17 Geo. III. c. 57. Alſo by 38 Geo. III. c. 71. artiſts employed in making models and caſts of buſts and other figures in alto and baſſo relievo, have obtained for themſelves and their aſſigns the excluſive property for fourteen years of all original models and caſts, which muſt be marked with the name of the proprietor and the date of their publication.

Patents. As the compoſers of good books are protected in the enjoyment of their fair profits for a reaſonable time, ſo alſo, they who, by mechanical or other inventions, benefit the community, and facilitate the progreſs of the arts, manufactures, or trade, are allowed the ſole privilege of making the things they have invented for the term of fourteen years. The privilege of granting

granting letters patent to this effect is reſerved to the king in the ſtatute againſt monopolies, and the obtaining of it is conſidered as mere matter of right, not of favour, ſince it is never refuſed on a proper application, and on payment of the fees, which amount to about 100*l.*

The patent is granted upon condition that the invention is new, or new in this country; and that the patentee ſhall deliver a ſpecification of his invention, containing ſuch a deſcription, plan, or model of the machine or article, as to be intelligible to every artiſt converſant in the ſame trade or manufactory. Or the invention muſt be ſo deſcribed that the public may, at the end of fourteen years, have the uſe of it in as cheap and beneficial a manner as the patentee himſelf uſes it. Hence if the ſpecification be in any part materially falſe, defective, obſcure, or give directions which tend to miſlead the public, the patent is againſt law and cannot be ſupported. The ſpecifications are preſerved in an office for public inſpection; and ſome patents, in very valuable manufactures, have been declared void, on account of the deſigned obſcurity of the ſpecification. In ſome extraordinary caſes, parliament has granted to the patentee an additional term, after the expiration of the firſt fourteen years.

TRADE.

In conſidering of the political ſtate of the Britiſh Empire, its commerce forms a topic of the higheſt importance. The local poſition of the country, the wiſe and philoſophical views both of its government and people, the eaſe, independence and ſecurity ariſing from experienced ſucceſs, and the clamorous envy of rival nations have concurred to point out the trade of the Britiſh nation as the ſureſt ſource of its grandeur, ſafety, and happineſs. A detailed hiſtory of the riſe and progreſs of trade in Great Britain would occupy a very large ſpace, and lead to diſcuſſions too extenſive for this work. The detached notices intended to be given, and which are ſelected from various authors, will be found to contain a general outline of the particulars moſt eſſential to be underſtood, and ſome account of various circumſtances incident to Britiſh commerce. In the firſt place, ſome general notions will be ſtated, and in ſubſequent diviſions, the particulars of greateſt moment, as reſpectively relating to foreign and domeſtic commerce.

Trade or commerce ariſes out of the neceſſity or inclination which impels men to deſire thoſe articles of property which they imagine will conduce to their comfort or happineſs, and

which are in the poſſeſſion of others. To obtain theſe by force or rapine would be not only a vicious, but a precarious recourſe, and therefore, in all ages, it has been uſual for thoſe who poſſeſſed a ſuperfluity of one commodity, to give it in exchange for the ſuperfluity which others poſſeſſed of ſome other commodity. This traffic moſt probably began in the moſt groſs and ſimple of neceſſaries, corn and cattle; but as induſtry produced greater accumulations of diſpoſeable effects, and the facility of procuring various objects led to increaſed deſires, the objects of commerce advanced, and manufactured goods, as inſtruments of war, articles of cloathing, and pieces of houſehold furniture, were procured from the hands of the induſtrious by means of barter. In proceſs of time, thoſe who could manufacture theſe articles with correctneſs and dexterity, were encouraged to ſeparate themſelves from every other purſuit, and to devote their whole attention to the production of thoſe things for which there was an ample demand, and found that by their labour they could procure from the hands of others a ſufficiency of all the neceſſaries of life. Perpetual barter becoming intricate and tedious, money was invented as an arbitrary ſign, to repreſent, by an underſtood valuation, the various neceſſaries and luxuries, which are the objects of commerce. It was even ſo commodious a poſſeſſion, and ſo highly valued in very early ages of the world, that it became the cauſe of tranſferring from one poſſeſſor to another, many things which in a more ſimple ſtate of ſociety would have been deemed inalienable; not only corn and cattle, but land and dwellings were ſold; not only manufactures and labour were the objects of pay and purchaſe, but for money, the artizan himſelf, his wife and children, and even whole diſtricts with their inhabitants were procured. Commerce ſoon aſſumed a greater extent and more complicated form; the produce and manufactures of one country were tranſported into others, and man, learning luxury from indulgence, ceaſed to be happy, unleſs he could obtain ſome portion of whatever he conſidered to be deſireable in the productions of every other part of the globe, beſide thoſe things which grew or were manufactured in that where he inhabited. Trade becoming then the occupation of whole communities, large portions of property, generally called *capital*, were ſet apart for the proſecution of it; laws were framed, ſome according to recent neceſſity, and ſome founded on ancient uſage, for protecting and regulating it; and a ſyſtem of mutual confidence, mutual honour, punctuality and regularity prevailed throughout all civilized nations. In Great Britain, commerce has been carried to a greater extent, cultivated with more circumſtances of honourable preference, and made productive of a greater

a greater ſhare of public glory and general utility than in any other nation recorded in hiſtory. The merchants exceed in wealth, and vie in ſtate and patronage with the nobles of other countries; chartered companies wield in their hands the proſperity and peace of whole nations, and even at home, private undertakers of commercial projects change the face of nature, level mountains, perforate rocks, turn the courſe of rivers, convert dry plains into magnificent lakes, and introduce into the receſſes of ſolitude, the din and buſtle of traffic and manufacture.

MERCHANTS. The protection of trade was very early a favourite object of the laws of this country. In the time of Athelſtan we find a very remarkable law, which ſays, that any merchant who has made three voyages upon his own account beyond the Britiſh channel, or narrow ſeas, ſhall be intitled to the privilege of a Thane. It ſeems agreed too, from the fundamental principles of our government, that the king cannot regularly prohibit trade, nor lay a penny impoſition on it; but that every man may uſe the ſea, and trade with other nations, as freely as he may uſe the air. But notwithſtanding this freedom of trade, it is agreed, that the king may in time of war, and for the public ſervice and ſafety, lay an embargo on ſhips, and employ the ſhips of his ſubjects in the public ſervice; but this, ſays Lord Chief Juſtice Holt, ought to be upon great emergencies, and for the public benefit, and not for the private intereſt of any perſon or ſociety. And as the freedom of trade and merchandize is ſupported by the common law, ſo likewiſe are there certain cuſtoms and privileges annexed thereto by the common law, of which the judges will take notice *ex officio*. Theſe cuſtoms were firſt eſtabliſhed to ſupply the want of laws, and afterwards admitted as laws. But the privileges of a merchant are not extended to every one who buys and ſells; nor is he from thence to be denominated a merchant, which appellation peculiarly belongs to him who traffics in the way of commerce by importation or exportation; or otherwiſe in the way of emption, vendition, barter, permutation, or exchange; and who makes it his living to buy and ſell, and that by a continued aſſiduity, or frequent negotiation in the myſtery of merchandizing; but thoſe, who buy goods to reduce them by their own art or induſtry into other forms than formerly they were of, are properly called artificers, not merchants.

ALIEN MERCHANTS. Although by the policy of our conſtitution, aliens lie under ſeveral diſabilities, and are denied in many inſtances the benefits of our laws; yet are they here, as in moſt other countries, allowed to trade and merchandize, which privilege is confirmed to them by *magna charta*, and divers

divers acts of parliament. And as foreigners and aliens are allowed to trade amongſt us, ſo are they allowed to maintain perſonal actions; becauſe otherwiſe they would be incapacitated to merchandize: but they cannot maintain any real action, becauſe it is not neceſſary that they ſhould purchaſe lands, or ſettle amongſt us. As to merchant ſtrangers, whoſe prince is at war with the crown of England, if they are found within the realm at the beginning of the war, they may be attached with a privilege and limitation without harm of body or goods, until it be known to the king, how merchants of England are uſed and entreated in their country, and accordingly they muſt be uſed in England, the ſame being *jus belli*; but for merchant ſtrangers that come into the realm after war begun, they may be dealt with as open enemies. And no action can be maintained by or in favour of an alien enemy.

Factors. As no one perſon whoſe trade is extenſive can tranſact all his own affairs; ſo it is neceſſary for him to depute another in his place, on whoſe ability and honeſty he can rely; and ſuch perſon ſo deputed is called a factor, who is in nature of a ſervant, whoſe act binds his maſter or principal, ſo far as he acts purſuant to the authority given him. If the commiſſion be general, as to *diſpoſe, do, and deal therein as if it were your own*, the factor is excuſed if a loſs happens; but if the commiſſion be to *ſell and diſpoſe*, hereby the factor is not enabled to ſell upon tick, nor can he ſell for an unreaſonable time as ten or twenty years, though there be words *as if it were your own*, but he muſt ſell according to the uſual time, for which credit is given for the commodities he diſpoſes of.

Partners. Partners are joint-tenants in all the ſtock and partnerſhip effects; and they are ſo not only of the particular ſtock in being at the time of entering into the partnerſhip, but they continue joint-tenants throughout whatever changes may take place in the courſe of trade; for if it were otherwiſe, it would be impoſſible to carry on partnerſhip trade. Hence aſſignees under a commiſſion of bankrupt againſt one partner, can only be tenants in common of an undivided ſhare, ſubject to all the rights of the other partner. And if a creditor of one partner takes out execution againſt the partnerſhip effects, he can only have the undivided ſhare of his debtor; and muſt take it in the ſame manner the debtor himſelf had it, and ſubject to the rights of the other partner. So that one partner can have no right againſt the other, in his capacity of partner, but to what is due to him out of the joint ſtock, after making all juſt allowances, let the fluctuations of trade be what they may. The whole of this doctrine ſeems to ariſe out of the very principle upon which partnerſhip is founded, namely, probable profit,

profit, and the riſk of loſs; the advantages or diſadvantages of which cannot, in common juſtice, be confined to one ſide only, but muſt be reciprocal throughout. But in order to conſtitute a partnerſhip, and make a perſon liable as a partner, there muſt be an agreement between him and the oſtenſible perſon to *ſhare in all riſks of profit or loſs*, or he muſt have permitted the other to have uſed his credit, and to hold him out as jointly liable with himſelf. A man entering into an agreement, and afterwards ſubdividing his beneficial intereſt under it, among others, is alone liable to the performance, and the ſubcontract does not conſtitute a partnerſhip. If two or more engage in a joint undertaking in the way of trade, or enter into copartnerſhip, it is not neceſſary to provide againſt ſurvivorſhip; for by a maxim of the common law, *jus accreſcendi inter mercatores locum non habet*; and this is for the benefit of trade and commerce, that the fruits of each perſon's labour and induſtry ſhould deſcend to his children and family. By the cuſtom of England, where there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill, drawn on both for him and partner, it binds both, if it concerns the trade; otherwiſe, if it concerns the acceptor only in a diſtinct intereſt and reſpect. Although a moiety of a joint ſtock may be taken in execution on a judgment againſt one partner; yet, if copartners become bankrupts, the joint eſtate is to diſcharge the joint debts in the firſt place, and the ſeparate eſtate to pay the ſeparate debts; and if there be no ſeparate eſtate, then the reſidue of the joint eſtate, after the joint creditors are ſatisfied, to be applied among the ſeparate creditors, and ſo *vice verſa*; for the commiſſioners of bankrupts are intruſted both with a legal and equitable juriſdiction, and may therefore marſhal the different effects, and apply them in diſcharge of the different creditors according to equity and juſtice.

Companies. The word company ſignifies perſons aſſociated for the purpoſe of carrying on a particular branch of trade, or for ſome particular purpoſe, and implies, in a general ſenſe, that they do ſo with a joint ſtock. The traders in a regulated company do not properly form a company at all; it is only a ſubſcription, and the ſubſcribers at Lloyd's might as well and properly be termed a company, (for they act independently, though ſubject to certain regulations,) as the Ruſſia and Turkey merchants are. The meaning of the word would be of little importance, were it not that the idea of a company carries with it the idea of monopoly, of reſtraint, of high prices, and high profits, thereby exciting prejudice againſt thoſe who belong to ſuch ſocieties or regulated companies. This has gone ſo far, that it may lead ſome time or other to the

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aboliſhing entirely the form of ſuch companies; it may therefore be well to obſerve, that when the trade to a country is ſuch as to require ſome general expenſes and regulations for its convenience, it is always well to have a regulated company. Thus it is to Turkey and Ruſſia, but it would be totally uſeleſs to the United States of America. New branches of trade require in many caſes a general concurrence and effort to make them proſper, and this is beſt effected by a regulated company. When the trade is of great national importance, ſuch as the Weſt India trade, government finds itſelf under the neceſſity of providing funds for general purpoſes, and the merchants find it neceſſary for their intereſt to meet in aſſemblies, and act in concert. The owners of ſhipping have found it neceſſary alſo to aſſemble, and to contribute funds for certain general purpoſes, which is, in fact, (though without any authority from government,) acting as a regulated company; and as this is done, of their own free will, by men who beſt underſtand their own intereſts, there can be no doubt of the advantage and utility. The trading companies in Great Britain are very numerous, and wealthy, and ſome of them will be noticed in the enſuing details reſpecting external and internal commerce. They are generally under the controul and ſuperintendance of governors, directors, and other officers, and are either voluntary, founded on ſome deed, or ſanctioned by act of parliament or by charter.

Shopkeepers. This claſs of perſons, ſo numerous, and ſo eſſentially neceſſary in all towns, are more ſeparate in their tranſactions than merchants, dealing to a ſmaller amount, and generally by retail, not forming commercial companies, but limiting their undertakings to ſuch objects as can be managed by a principal and his partners or aſſiſtants. In former times, diſtinctions were made between merchants and ſhopkeepers, which are not now in any manner preſerved, except with reference to the magnitude of their dealings, their honour, and their punctuality.

Artificers. In this deſcription is included the whole manufacturing claſs of the community; a moſt uſeful body, who by their induſtry and ingenuity have contributed to the wealth of their country, and raiſed its reputation to the higheſt pitch in all parts of the world.

Such are the principal diviſions of perſons by whoſe enterprize and activity wealth is circulated, and induſtry made productive. On the ſeparate utility of each claſs, Dr. Adam Smith makes the following obſervations. A capital may be employed in four different ways: either, firſt, in procuring the rude produce annually required for the uſe and conſumption of

the

the ſociety; or, ſecondly, in manufacturing and preparing that rude produce for immediate uſe and conſumption; or, thirdly, in tranſporting either the rude or manufactured produce from the places where they abound to thoſe where they are wanted; or, laſtly, in dividing particular portions of either into ſuch ſmall parcels as ſuit the occaſional demands of thoſe who want them. In the firſt way are employed the capitals of all thoſe who undertake the improvement or cultivation of lands, mines, or fiſheries; in the ſecond, thoſe of all maſter manufacturers; in the third, thoſe of all wholeſale merchants; and in the fourth, thoſe of all retailers. It is difficult to conceive that a capital ſhould be employed in any way which may not be claſſed under ſome one or other of thoſe four.

Each of thoſe four methods of employing a capital is eſſentially neceſſary either to the exiſtence or extenſion of the other three, or to the general conveniency of the ſociety. Unleſs a capital was employed in furniſhing rude produce to a certain degree of abundance, neither manufactures nor trade of any kind could exiſt. Unleſs a capital was employed in manufacturing that part of the rude produce which requires a good deal of preparation before it can be fit for uſe and conſumption, it would either never be produced, becauſe there could be no demand for it; or if it was produced ſpontaneouſly, it would be of no value in exchange, and could add nothing to the wealth of the ſociety. Unleſs a capital was employed in tranſporting, either the rude or manufactured produce, from the places where it abounds to thoſe where it is wanted, no more of either could be produced than was neceſſary for the conſumption of the neighbourhood. The capital of the merchant exchanges the ſurplus produce of one place for that of another, and thus encourages the induſtry and increaſes the enjoyments of both. Unleſs a capital was employed in breaking and dividing certain portions either of the rude or manufactured produce, into ſuch ſmall parcels as ſuit the occaſional demands of thoſe who want them, every man would be obliged to purchaſe a greater quantity of the goods he wanted, than his immediate occaſions required. If there was no ſuch trade as a butcher, for example, every man would be obliged to purchaſe a whole ox or a whole ſheep at a time. This would be generally inconvenient to the rich, and much more ſo to the poor. If a poor workman was obliged to purchaſe a month's or ſix months' proviſions at a time, a great part of the ſtock which he employs as a capital in the inſtruments of his trade or in the furniture of his ſhop, and which yields him a revenue, he would be forced to place in that part of his ſtock which is reſerved for immediate conſumption, and which yields him no revenue. Nothing can be more convenient for ſuch a

perſon

perſon than to be able to purchaſe his ſubſiſtence from day to day, or even from hour to hour, as he wants it. He is thereby enabled to employ almoſt his whole ſtock as a capital. He is thus enabled to furniſh work to a greater value, and the profit which he makes by it in this way, much more than compenſates the additional price which the profit of the retailer impoſes upon the goods. The prejudices of ſome political writers againſt ſhopkeepers, and tradeſmen, are altogether without foundation. So far is it from being neceſſary, either to tax them, or to reſtrict their numbers, that they can never be multiplied ſo as to hurt the public, though they may ſo as to hurt one another. The quantity of grocery goods, for example, which can be ſold in a particular town, is limited by the demand of that town and its neighbourhood. The capital, therefore, which can be employed in the grocery trade cannot exceed what is ſufficient to purchaſe that quantity. If this capital is divided between two different grocers, their competition will tend to make both of them ſell cheaper, than if it were in the hands of one only; and if it were divided among twenty, their competition would be juſt ſo much the greater, and the chance of their combining together, in order to raiſe the price, juſt ſo much the leſs. Their competition might perhaps ruin ſome of themſelves; but to take care of this is the buſineſs of the parties concerned, and it may be ſafely truſted to their diſcretion. It can never hurt either the conſumer, or the producer; on the contrary, it muſt tend to make the retailers both ſell cheaper and buy dearer, than if the whole trade was monopolized by one or two perſons. Some of them, perhaps, may ſometimes decoy a weak cuſtomer to buy what he has no occaſion for. This evil, however, is of too little importance to deſerve the public attention, nor would it neceſſarily be prevented by reſtricting their numbers. It is not the multitude of ale-houſes, to give the moſt ſuſpicious example, that occaſions a general diſpoſition to drunkenneſs among the common people; but that diſpoſition ariſing from other cauſes neceſſarily gives employment to a multitude of ale-houſes. The perſons whoſe capitals are employed in any of thoſe four ways are themſelves productive labourers. Their labour, when properly directed, fixes and realizes itſelf in the ſubject or vendible commodity upon which it is beſtowed, and generally adds to its price the value at leaſt of their own maintenance and conſumption. The profits of the farmer, of the manufacturer, of the merchant, and retailer, are all drawn from the price of the goods which the two firſt produce, and the two laſt buy and ſell.

All wholeſale trade, the ſame profound author adds, all buying in order to ſell again by wholeſale, may be reduced to three different

ferent ſorts: The Home Trade, the Foreign Trade of Conſumption, and the Carrying Trade. The home trade is employed in purchaſing in one part of the ſame country, and ſelling in another the produce of the induſtry of that country. It comprehends both the inland and the coaſting trade. The foreign trade of conſumption is employed in purchaſing foreign goods for home conſumption. The carrying trade is employed in tranſacting the commerce of foreign countries, or in carrying the ſurplus produce of one to another.

Under the two general heads here deſcribed, Foreign and Home Trade, the details to be afforded on the ſubject of commerce will be claſſed, and a few circumſtances ſuperadded, applying to each.

FOREIGN TRADE.

The objects for which Great Britain trades to the various countries of the globe, what produce of her ſoil and of her induſtry ſhe tranſmits, and what articles ſhe receives in return, will appear by the following table, extracted from Macpherſon's Annals of Commerce, where it is intitled,

"Specification of the chief articles of merchandiſe which compoſe the trade with different countries, extracted from the books in the cuſtom houſe; thoſe which are firſt introduced into Great Britain from foreign countries and afterward exported being printed in Italics."

DENMARK *Imports*—Oak-bark; cordage; corn (an unuſual article); indigo 10,000 lbs.; cotton 34,666 lbs.; hides of horſes and oxen; bar iron; kelp; rock moſs; ſome ſalted beef, pork and butter; furs and peltry; tar, timber and boards of great variety of kinds.

Exports—Alum; wrought braſs, copper and iron; lead; tin; tinned plates; coals; grindſtones; painters' colours; earthen ware; glaſs; ſalt; cotton goods; woollen goods of all kinds; hats; Scottiſh linens above bounty, 1,250 yards; tanned leather; refined ſugar, melaſſes; train oil.

Drugs, indigo, logwood, and other dye ſtuffs; coffee; cinnamon, and other ſpices; ſugar; tobacco; cotton.

RUSSIA *Imports*—Pearl-aſhes, pot-aſhes, and weed-aſhes; briſtles; cordage; ſome corn; iſinglaſs, rhubarb, and ſome other drugs; flax and hemp; bar iron; caſt iron; wrought iron, 24 tons; linens, diaper, drilling and ſheeting; pitch and tar; bacon; beef; tongues; bread; rags only 28 tons; lintſeed; ſome ſkins of hares, ſeals and calves; bees wax, tallow 410,260 tons; timber, boards, ſtaves.

Exports

Exports—Alum; coals; ſlates; ſalt; ſal ammoniac; ſpelter; lead; tin; earthen-ware; glaſs; wrought iron; wrought ſilver; woollen, cotton and ſilk goods of all kinds; ſtationary; painters' colours; cotton yarn; watches; refined ſugar; muſical inſtruments; wearing apparel; horſes; herrings.

Drugs; cochineal, indigo, fuſtic, logwood and other dye ſtuffs; pepper and other ſpices; coffee; ſugar; a few Iriſh linens; India calicoes, muſlins, &c.; raw ſilk; beaver and other ſkins; ſome prize French wine.

SWEDEN *Imports*—Some corn and bread; flax; herrings 313 barrels; bar and caſt iron; drawn and wrought iron 1½ ton; rock moſs; pitch and tar; timber, board, ſtaves, &c.

Exports—Coals; lead; tin; painters' colours; cotton and woollen goods; refined ſugar.

Drugs; cochineal, indigo, and other dye ſtuffs; ſome coffee, ſome pepper and other ſpices; ſugar; rum and other ſpirits; tobacco; ſome cotton; ſome Eaſt India calicoes, &c.

POLAND *Imports*—Pearl-aſhes, weed-aſhes; ſpruce beer 1,093 barrels; wheat, rye, barley, peas; ſome linen; boards, ſtaves, &c.

Exports—Iron; wrought braſs; cotton goods; refined ſugar.

Drugs; indigo and other dye ſtuffs; pepper and other ſpices; coffee; rum; a little ſugar.

PRUSSIA *Imports*—Pearl-aſhes, weed-aſhes; ſpruce beer 1,054 barrels; wheat, barley, oats, peas, beans, rye; flax; hemp; madder; briſtles; mill-ſtones; wool; hides; goſe-quills; lintſeed; ſome ſkins; cheeſe; timber, board, ſtaves, &c.

Exports—Alum; wearing apparel; beer; wrought braſs and iron; coals; copperas; grindſtones; lead; tin; tinned plates; painters' colours; woollen and cotton goods; earthen ware; glaſs; ſalt; ſome refined ſugar; melaſſes; train oil; ſome cotton yarn.

Drugs; indigo; fuſtic, logwood and other dye ſtuffs; pepper, pimento, and other ſpices; coffee; ſugar; rum; tobacco; oil; India goods; French wine.

GERMANY *Imports*—Oak-bark; books, maps, prints; pictures *; brimſtone; 3,195 wooden clocks; cork; wheat, barley, oats, peas, beans, rye, rye-meal, wheat, flour; arſenick, antimony, and other drugs; gums; juniper berries; oil of turpentine; verdigris; copperas; ſuccus' liquoritiæ; flax; hemp; goats, ox, horſe hair; human hair 2,378 lbs.; hides;

* Books, maps, pictures, &c. alſo come from the other countries of Europe, but in ſmaller quantities,

hops;

hops; chip and ſtraw hats; linens, cambrics, canvas, lawns, Holland, tabling, &c.; rags, 3,002 tons; ſome paper; waſte paper to be remanufactured; butter and cheeſe; beef; pork; tongues; potatoes; gooſe-quills; ſeeds; ſilk, raw, thrown, and waſte; wool, Spaniſh, &c.; bees-wax; calf, bear, coney, goat, ſheep, and ſeal ſkins; brandy, geneva, and other ſpirits; ſtarch; Rheniſh, Tokay, French, and Spaniſh wines; cotton; linen yarn, above 3,000,000 lbs.; timber, boards, &c.

Exports—Alum; wearing apparel; bark; beer; books and ſtationary; wrought braſs; copper and iron; ſilver-plate and plated ware; lead; pewter; tin; tinned plates *; ſalt; coals; earthen-ware; glaſs; painters' colours; copperas; oil of vitriol; ſal-ammoniac, and other drugs; train oil; whale-bone; herrings, red and white; cod; oyſters; refined ſugar; melaſſes; tanned leather; wrought leather; gloves; haberdaſhery; hats; cotton goods to a large amount; woollen goods; ſilk goods; cotton yarn, value 365,945 *l.*; watches; muſical inſtruments; cabinet-ware; coaches; horſes.

Mother of pearl; walking canes; aloes, rhubarb, borax, camphire, caſſia lignea, caſtoreum, jalap, and other drugs; gum ſenegal, and other gums; cochineal, indigo, annotto, brazil, fuſtic, logwood, madder, and other dye-ſtuffs; mahogany and other Weſt India goods; ivory; cinnamon, cloves, pepper, ginger, and other ſpiceries; cacao; coffee; ſugar; tea; ſago; turmeric; currants; Indian hides, ox and cow hides; ſkins of deer, otter, bear, fox, mink, wolf, and almoſt all other kinds; horns; linſeed oil, and other oils; rum; brandy; arrack; French, Spaniſh, and other wines; tobacco; whale-bone; cotton; cotton yarn; India piece goods; a few Iriſh linens.

It is to be obſerved that much of the commerce of Germany is for account of the nations involved in war.

HOLLAND *Imports*—Oak bark, books, maps, drawings, paintings, prints; corn; juniper berries; flax, hemp; madder; flower roots and trees, value 1,074 *l.*; a few linens; butter; cheeſe; bacon; potatoes; ſeeds; geneva; rags, 61,000 tons.

Exports—Copperas; a few cotton goods; ſome woollen goods; refined ſugar; train oil, an article formerly imported from Holland.

Foreign merchandiſe; nearly the ſame as to Germany, but leſs than half the quantities.

FLANDERS *Imports*—Tanned horſe, cow, and calf hides; ſeeds; rags, 371 tons.

* Tinned plates, now an article of export to every country, were imported from Germany about fifty years ago.

Exports—Refined ſugar; ſome copperas.

Foreign goods as to Germany, but in very ſmall quantities.

FRANCE *Imports*—Books, &c.; mill-ſtones; verdigris; cochineal; valonia; ſalt, 234 weys to Scotland; ſeeds; brandy; ſtarch; tallow; rye-meal; ſome wheat, barley, &c.; bread, 150 cwt.; beef, pork, and bacon; butter; tanned ox, cow, and calf hides.

Exports—Refined ſugar; a ſmall quantity of printed cotton and linen goods.

Caſſia lignea, rhubarb, and other drugs; indigo, logwood, and other dye-ſtuffs; cinnamon; cloves, pepper, pimento, ginger, &c.; cacao; coffee; ſugar; tobacco; India piece goods.

PORTUGAL *Imports*—Brimſtone; cork; wheat and flour, very unuſual exports from Portugal; balſam capivi, ipecacuanha, gum arabic, gum ſenegal, and other gums and drugs; annotto, orchil, argol, cochineal, brazil-wood, indigo, madder, and other dye-ſtuffs; 33,518,701 lemons and oranges; almonds, figs, raiſins, &c; Indian and other hides of oxen, horſes, &c.; 6,000 dozen goat ſkins; other ſkins; Portugal wine, 19,328 tuns; Madeira, French, and Spaniſh wines; Spaniſh wool, 1,663,582 lbs.; cotton.

Exports—Alum; wearing apparel; beer; ſome books and ſtationary; wrought braſs, copper, and iron; 1,021 cannon; bar iron, caſt iron, nails; cabinet ware; coals; lead; pewter; tin; tinned plates; copperas; painters' colours; train oil; oil of vitriol; hard ſoap; earthen-ware; glaſs; refined ſugar; watches; woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; a few linens; haberdaſhery; hats.

Barilla; brimſtone; wheat, 1,584 *quarters; drugs; logwood, fuſtic, a little indigo, and other dye-ſtuffs; cinnamon and cloves; ſome undreſſed flax; cotton; cacao; ſome ſugar; bar iron; drawn and wrought iron; tar; Iriſh linens, value only* 4,413 *l.; a few German linens.*

MADEIRA *Imports*—Wine, 494 tuns. (Much more is imported by circuitous routes.)

Exports—Woollen, ſilk, cotton, and linen manufactures; hats; wrought and caſt iron; and ſmall quantities of moſt kinds of goods.

Undreſſed flax; ſome Iriſh and a few German linens; India piece goods; brandy.

SPAIN *Imports*—Barilla; cork; beans; ſome wheat; black lead; ſuccus liquoritiæ; mahogany; ſhumack; grapes; raiſins; 10,517,750 lemons and oranges; figs; currants; cheſnuts, hazel nuts, walnuts, almonds; aniſe ſeed; oil; brandy; Spaniſh wine 3,540 tuns; Spaniſh wool, 5,995,624 lbs.

Exports—No Britiſh merchandize.

Cinnamon;

Cinnamon; cacao; and nothing elſe.

CANARIES *Import*—Barilla; copper; ſome drugs and gums; orchil; Canary wine, 47 tuns; Spaniſh wine, 553 tuns.

Export—Nothing.

STRAITS *Import*—Currants; ſome drugs; ſome dye-ſtuffs.

Export—Nothing.

GIBRALTAR *Imports*—Barilla; brimſtone; quickſilver; cochineal, indigo, and other dye-ſtuffs; almonds, raiſins, and other fruits; oil; Portugal, Spaniſh, Italian, Cyprus, and Madeira wines; Spaniſh wool, 33,748 lbs.; cotton.

Exports—Beer; wrought braſs and iron; tinned plates; woollen goods; a few linens; cotton goods to a conſiderable amount; hats; wrought leather; ſtationary and ſome books; pilchards and a few other fiſh; refined ſugar; coals; cabinet-ware; and all kinds of neceſſaries, the place itſelf producing nothing.

Cinnamon, cloves, pepper, and other ſpices; coffee; ſugar; tea; butter; rum; geneva; tobacco; ſome German, Iriſh, and Ruſſia linens; India piece goods.

ITALY, including VENICE, *Imports*—Books, drawings, &c.; barilla; brimſtone; cork; cream of tartar, eſſence of lemons, manna, ſenna, ſuccus liquoritiæ, and other drugs; juniper berries; perfumed oil; argol, galls, madder, ſhumack, valonia and other dye-ſtuffs; anchovies; almonds, figs, prunes, nuts, &c; currants; raiſins; ordinary and ſallad oil; cheeſe, 439 cwt.; chip and ſtraw hats; bugles; ſilk, raw, thrown, and waſte; rags, 695 tons; lamb ſkins undreſſed; goats and kids ſkins raw and dreſſed; brandy; ſtatues, valued at 1,368*l.*; marble, cotton.

Exports—Alum *; wrought braſs, iron, and ſilver; plated ware; woollen goods of all ſorts; cotton goods to a conſiderable amount; a few linens; earthen ware; glaſs; hardware; tinned plates; pilchards, 32,881 hhds.; red and white herrings; dry cod; tanned leather; wrought leather.

Cochineal, indigo, fuſtic, logwood, and other dye-ſtuffs; cinnamon, cloves, pepper, ginger, &c; cacao; coffee; ſugar; bar and plate iron; India piece goods; ox guts; rum; tar; tobacco; whalebone †.

MINORCA *Imports*—Barilla; lemons and oranges; ordinary oil; thrown ſilk; cotton; wool.

* In the middle ages Genoa ſupplyed all Europe with alum.

† What would the merchants of Italy in the middle ages have ſaid to any perſon who would have ventured to predict, that a country, which they knew good for nothing but feeding ſheep and cattle, and furniſhing wool, hides, lead, and tin, ſhould ever ſupply them with Oriental produce and manufactures, and many other comforts and luxuries of life

Exports—A few woollen goods; some herrings; some refined sugar; several other articles of less than 1,000*l.* each in value.

Sugar; rum; geneva; some spicery.

TURKEY *Imports*—Carpets; copper; cuculus Indiæ, tragacanth, opium, senna, and other drugs; berries, galls, madder, valonia and other dye-stuffs; boxwood; currants, figs, raisins, and other fruits; goats' hair; mohair; goats' skins; raw silk; cotton; cotton yarn.

Exports—Lead; tin; tinned plates; 170 cannon, and other wrought iron; watches; some cotton goods; woollen goods.

Cochineal, indigo, and other dye-stuffs; some cinnamon, cloves, pimento, and other spices; coffee; sugar; India piece goods.

MALTA *Imports*—Nothing.

Exports—A small quantity of beer in bottles, hitherto the only article of export.

IRELAND *Imports*—Pearl-ashes; wood ashes; books, valued at 777*l.*; cows, oxen, horses, mules, sheep, swine; ox, cow, and horse hides; calf and goat skins; copper ore; cork; feathers; some flax; glue; beef; pork; bacon; lard; tallow; butter; a few potatoes; starch; tobacco; linen, 32,152,399 yards; some cambrics and diapers; linen yarn; woollen yarn; linseed; rape seed; tobacco; some cotton; some wines, chiefly of Portugal.

Exports—Alum; apothecaries' ware; wearing apparel; bark; beer; books and stationary; wrought brass and wire; wrought copper; cabinet wares; horses; coals, value about 360,000*l.*, mostly from Scotland; red and white lead, and other painters' colours, oil, varnish, &c; copperas; cordage; woollen, cotton, and silk manufactures of all kinds; hats, mostly felt; haberdashery; lace; a few Paisley goods; cotton yarn; tan leather; wrought leather; cast and bar iron; steel; ironmongery, and hardware; hoops for barrels; cyder; dry cod; herrings, about 106,000 barrels, mostly from Scotland; earthen ware; bottles and window glass; hops; lead; tin; tinned plates; silver and plated ware; sail-cloth; refined sugar; melasses; rock moss; salt; cheese; garden and grass seeds; train oil; oil of vitriol; stone and slate for building; tobacco pipes; cotton yarn, value 80,458*l.*; other kinds of goods in quantities not of 1,000*l.* value.

Pearl-ashes; pot-ashes; weed-ashes; barilla; brimstone; some wheat and flour; drugs and gums of all kinds; indigo, madder, redwood, safflower, and other dye-stuffs; mahogany and other woods; flax undressed; tow; hemp; pepper and some other spiceries; currants; sugar; tea; bar iron; saltpetre; silk, raw and thrown; skins of deer and other animals; rum; brandy geneva some wines;

wines; tobacco, and almoſt every other article, though in quantities under 1,000 *l.*

ISLE OF MAN *Imports*—Herrings, red 5,641 barrels, white 15,417 barrels; ſome plain Iriſh linen, and ſome linen yarn.

Exports—Coals; flour; ſome cotton goods; woollen goods; ſalt; wrought iron; other articles in ſmall quantities.

Flax undreſſed; ſugar; tea; other groceries; rum, &c.

GUERNSEY, JERSEY, ALDERNEY, &c. *Import*—Guernſey is a kind of ſtore-houſe for merchandize imported from foreign countries and lodged there, in order to ſave the advance of the duties, till they are wanted; and hence the imports conſiſt of all kinds of foreign goods, but chiefly Portugal, French, and Spaniſh wines, brandy, &c. alſo ſome dye-ſtuffs and drugs; paving ſtones, cyder; worſted ſtockings from Jerſey, 5,935 dozen pairs.

Exports—Cows and oxen, 196 to Alderney; flour and ſome corn; wearing apparel; tallow candles; coals; cordage; painters' colours; cotton goods; ſilk goods; ſome woollen goods; haberdaſhery; ſome herrings and other fiſh; earthen ware; bottles, and other glaſs; wrought iron, hoops, and hardware; ſilver ware; tanned and wrought leather; rock ſalt; beef, pork, and other proviſions; ſoap; refined ſugar; ſtationary and ſome books; ſail cloth; wool, 2,007 tods to Jerſey.

Logwood, and ſome other dye-ſtuffs; drugs; ſugar; tea; India piece goods; German, Iriſh, and Ruſſia linens; corn, flour, and meal; rum; geneva.

GREENLAND *Imports*—Train oil; ſpermaceti oil; whale-bone, ſeal-ſkins.

Exports—*Rum* for ſhip ſtores.

NEW ENGLAND *Imports*—Pearl-aſhes; pot-aſhes; flour; ſome Indian corn and rye meal; faſſafras; ſhumack; ſpermaceti oil; whale-bone; turpentine; ſome tar and roſin; timber, chiefly oak, fir and ſtaves; Indian hides, deer ſkins, and other Indian peltry—alſo cochineal, indigo, fuſtic, logwood, red-wood, lignum vitæ, mahogany, ſugar, coffee, cotton, rice, tobacco, obtained in trade with the Weſt Indies, and Southern States, and imported moſtly in New England veſſels.

Exports—Books and ſtationary; wrought braſs, copper and iron; pewter; lead; tin; tinned plates; coals; ſalt; earthen ware; glaſs; woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; beaver, felt, and chip hats; thread; haberdaſhery; linens.

A few drugs; ſome dye-ſtuffs; cinnamon, and ſome other ſpices; Iriſh linens; India piece goods.

NEW YORK *Imports*—Pearl-aſhes; pot-aſhes; wheat; flour; ſome Indian corn and meal; ginſeng; ſnake-root; ſarſaparilla;

ſaſſafras; tar; turpentine; oil of turpentine; roſin; ſtaves and ſome timber. Alſo the produce of the Weſt Indies and Southern States, as New England.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware; wearing apparel; books and ſtationary; wrought braſs, copper, iron, and ſilver; pewter; lead; ſteel; tinned plates; copperas; painters' colours; coals; ſalt; earthen-ware; bottles and window glaſs; hardware; guns; gunpowder; flints; woollen goods in conſiderable quantities; cotton goods; ſome Scottiſh linens; ſilk goods; beaver, and felt-hats; haberdaſhery; watches; muſical inſtruments.

Drugs and dye-ſtuffs in ſmall quantities; Iriſh linens; a few Ruſſia linens; India piece goods; geneva.

PENSYLVANIA *Imports*—Bark of oak and quercitron; books; ſome wheat, flour, corn, &c.; ginſeng; ſnake-root; ſarſaparilla; ſaſſafras; horſe hides; tanned ox hides; turpentine; ſome tar, pitch, and roſin; ſkins of bears and deer, and other Indian peltry. Alſo the produce of the Weſt Indies and Southern States, as New England.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware; books and ſtationary; wrought braſs, copper, iron; ſteel; pewter; tinned plates; painters' colours; ſalt; earthen-ware; glaſs; hardware; guns; a little gun-powder; woollen goods in conſiderable quantities; cotton and ſilk goods; ſome linen and ſail cloth; beaver and felt-hats; thread; haberdaſhery; watches.

Some drugs and dye-ſtuffs; ſome ſpicery and grocery; Iriſh linens; a few Ruſſia linens; India piece goods.

VIRGINIA AND MARYLAND *Import*—Flour; ſome wheat, Indian corn, and meal, and rye; ſome pot-aſhes, and a ſmall quantity of pearl-aſhes, from Virginia; ginſeng, and ſome other native drugs, in ſmaller quantities than from the Northern States; tobacco; tar; pitch; turpentine; roſin; ſtaves; and ſome other lumber; deer ſkins, and other Indian peltry. Alſo Weſt India produce, as New England, &c.

Export—Apothecaries' ware; wearing apparel; beer; ſtationary and ſome books; wrought braſs, copper, iron, and ſilver; ſteel; pewter; lead; tinned plates; painters' colours; ſalt; earthen-ware; ſome glaſs; grind-ſtones; hardware; guns; a little gun-powder; woollen goods in conſiderable quantities; cotton goods; a few linens; ſilk goods; beaver and felt hats.

Some drugs and dye-ſtuffs; Iriſh linens; ſome Ruſſia, and German linens; a few India piece goods.

NORTH CAROLINA *Imports*—A ſmall quantity of flour and corn; tar; roſin; turpentine; ſome oil of turpentine; tobacco; ſtaves; ſome deer, and other ſkins. Alſo ſome Weſt India produce.

Exports—Pretty near the ſame articles as to Virginia and Maryland, but all in ſmaller quantities, this ſtate being leſs populous; and great part of its imports and exports being in the ports of Virginia and South Carolina.

A few Iriſh linens.

SOUTH CAROLINA *Imports*—Some flour, Indian corn, and rye and meal; rice; indigo (probably Weſt Indian); ſome pitch, tar, roſin, turpentine, and turpentine oil, moſtly the produce of North Carolina; ſtaves; ſome cedar timber; deer and other ſkins; ſome cotton, the produce of Georgia. Alſo ſome Weſt India produce.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware; beer; books and ſtationary; wrought braſs, copper, iron, and ſilver; lead; pewter; painters' colours; ſalt; earthen-ware; glaſs; hardware; wrought leather; woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; ſome linens, chiefly bounty; beaver and felt hats; haberdaſhery; muſical inſtruments.

Some drugs and dye-ſtuffs; cinnamon; Iriſh linen; ſome German and a few Ruſſia linens; India piece goods; ſome French wines; ſome other wines.

GEORGIA *Imports*—Rice; tobacco; a little indigo; ſome ſtaves; cedar, and bickory timber; deer ſkins and other ſkins. Alſo ſome Weſt Indian produce.

Exports—Wrought iron; pewter; ſome earthen-ware and glaſs; hard-ware; woollen, cotton, and ſilk manufactures; ſome bounty linens; beaver, and felt hats; haberdaſhery; cordage.

Iriſh linens; a few German and Ruſſia linens; a few articles of grocery.

HUDSON'S BAY *Imports*—Beayer, mink, otter, wolf, deer, bear, and fox ſkins; bed feathers, 90 cwt.; caſtoreum.

Exports—A few coarſe woollens for the Indians; guns; gunpowder; ſome wrought iron; proviſions for the company's people in the factories or forts.

Tobacco; and ſmall quantities of rum, ſugar, and groceries.

NEWFOUNDLAND *Imports*—Cod-fiſh, 24 tons; train oil; ſome ſkins, chiefly of ſeals. Alſo ſome Weſt India produce. The fiſh is moſtly carried direct to the Roman-Catholic countries of Europe.

Exports—Salt; wrought iron and hoops; wrought leather; cordage; ſail-cloth; a few linens; ſome woollen goods; a few cotton goods; ſome haberdaſhery; wearing apparel; ſoap; wrought leather; bread, and other proviſions.

Tea; groceries in ſmall quantities; white ſalt; beef; pork; butter; tobacco; wines, Portugal, French, &c; geneva; canvaſs; German linens; a few Iriſh and Ruſſia linens.

CANADA *Imports*—Pearl aſhes; pot aſhes; wheat; flour; caſtoreum; eſſence of ſpruce; train oil; beaver, cat, deer, fox, martin, mink, muſquaſh, otter, racoon, wolf, and wolvereen

ſkins; maſts, boards, ſtaves, and ſome other lumber. Alſo ſome cotton, dying woods, &c. got by circuitous trade.

Exports—Salt; wrought braſs; copper; ſteel; guns; gunpowder; flints; books; coals; earthen-ware; glaſs; wrought leather; woollen goods, moſtly coarſe, for Indian trade; cotton and ſilk goods; a few linens, moſtly bounty; beaver and felt hats; haberdaſhery; ſoap; train oil; refined ſugar; tobacco pipes.

A few drugs and dye ſtuffs; ſome ſpices and groceries; a little bar iron; Ruſſia linens; ſome Iriſh, and a few other linens.

New Brunswick *Imports*—Maſts; ſtaves; ſome other lumber in ſmall quantities; ſome ſkins.

Exports—Wrought iron; cordage; ſome woollen and cotton goods; a few ſilk goods; a few linens; hats; haberdaſhery.

Bar iron; tea; a few ſpiceries and groceries; Iriſh linens; a few Ruſſia and other linens; a few India piece goods; wine and rum in ſmall quantities.

Nova Scotia *Imports*—Some lumber; ſome pearl aſhes; tar and turpentine in ſmall quantities; ſome ſkins. Alſo ſome Weſt India goods, chiefly obtained by captures.

Exports—Iron and ironmongery; hardware; earthenware; glaſs; ſalt; beer; tallow candles; ſoap; cordage; ſome woollen, cotton, and ſilk goods; ſome linens; hats, moſtly felt; wrought leather.

A few drugs, groceries, and ſpiceries; tea; beef; pork; butter; Iriſh linens; a few Ruſſia and other linens; India piece goods in ſmall quantities; brandy; rum; geneva; Portugal and Spaniſh wines.

Bermuda *Imports*—A ſmall quantity of cotton. All the other imports from this iſland conſiſt of prize goods, and a few triſling articles obtained in the way of trade.

Exports—Wrought iron and copper; ſome cotton and woollen goods; a few linens.

Some groceries; Iriſh, Ruſſia, and German linens, all ſmall quantities.

Bahama Islands *Import*—Cotton, 707,454 lbs.; braziletto; box-wood; lignum vitæ; cedar; mahogany;—alſo ſome of the ſame woods, logwood, nicaragua, hides, tobacco, &c. obtained from other countries; and various goods obtained by wrecking and privateering.

Export—Wrought braſs, copper, iron, and ſilver; pewter; watches; gold, ſilver, &c.; beer; cotton goods; ſilk goods; ſome woollen goods; linens; hats; haberdaſhery; cordage; ſoap.

Cinnamon, cloves, and other ſpices; tea, groceries; German linens; ſome Iriſh and a few Ruſſia, linens; India piece goods; brandy, geneva; a little wine.

British West India Sugar Islands *Import*—Sugar; rum; ſmall quantities of melaſſes; cotton; coffee; cacao, or chocolate

chocolate nuts; ginger; pimento; indigo; braziletto; log-wood; mahogany; fuſtic; cedar; ebony; yellow wood; lignum vitæ; quaſſia; gum guaiacum, caſtor-oil, ſarſaparilla, turmeric, and ſome other drugs; Cayenne pepper; tamarinds; ſome turtle ſhell. Alſo hides, cotton, cacao, and other foreign Weſt India produce obtained by trade and by war; and wines carried from Madeira and other countries for the improvement acquired by the voyage.

Export—Wrought copper, iron, braſs, pewter, ſilver, &c; watches, gold, ſilver, &c. chiefly to Jamaica; cotton goods; ſome woollen goods; linens, moſtly low priced; checks, Oſnaburg, &c. in large quantities; hats; flour; corn of various kinds; beef; pork; butter; cheeſe; herrings; beer in conſiderable quantities; and, in ſhort, every article of food and cloathing, furniture, ſhip chandlery, military ſtores, coals for firing, and every article of accommodation and luxury.

Groceries; drugs; Iriſh, German, and Ruſſia linens in conſiderable quantities, eſpecially to Jamaica. India piece goods; ſome wines.

Conquered French and Dutch West India Colonies *Import*—The ſame produce as the Britiſh iſlands, only very little rum from any of them, except Tobago, which being a Britiſh colony, is cultivated in the Britiſh manner.

Export—Britiſh and foreign merchandize, as to the Britiſh ſugar iſlands.

Conquered Spanish Island of Trinidad *Imports*—Sugar, about 55,000 cwt.; rum, 2,999 gallons; cotton, 773,973 lbs.; indigo, 75,367 lbs.; fuſtic; lignum vitæ; a little turtle ſhell; 55,815 hides.

Exports—Conſiderable quantities of linen and cotton goods; proviſions, &c. as to the Britiſh iſlands.

Iriſh, German, and Ruſſia linens.

Buenos Ayres *Imports*—Unwrought copper; vultures' feathers; hides.

Exports—Nothing.—N.B. This was written before the conqueſt of that colony, but at preſent, the exports are very extenſive, conſiſting of almoſt every manufactured article produced in Great Britain.

Cayenne *Imports*—Dye-ſtuffs; hard wood; hides; all in trifling quantities.

Exports—Nothing.

Cuba *Imports*—Sugar; fuſtic; mahogany; all in trifling quantities.

Exports—Nothing.

St. Bartholomew *Imports*—Indigo; nicaragua wood; cacao; coffee; cotton; ſome ſugar.

Exports—A few linens, and cotton goods; earthen-ware; glaſs.

St.

ST. CROIX *Imports*—Sugar; cotton; ſome fuſtic and lignum vitæ.

Exports—Nothing.

ST. DOMINGO *Imports*—Sugar; fuſtic; logwood; mahogany; hides.

Exports—Nothing.

ST. MARTIN *Imports*—Salt;

Exports—Nothing.

ST. THOMAS *Imports*—Sugar; coffee; cacao; cotton; indigo; annotto; logwood; fuſtic; nicaragua wood; mahogany; ſome hides; turtle ſhell.

Exports—Britiſh merchandize, as to the Britiſh Iſlands.

Some cinnamon and pepper; a few German and Iriſh linens; ſome wine.

BAY OF HONDURAS *Imports*—Mahogany; ſome logwood; a little fuſtic; a little cedar; a ſmall quantity of turtle ſhell.

Exports—A few of the articles uſually carried to the Weſt Indies.

Some Iriſh linens; beef; pork; rum; wine; all in ſmall quantities.

FLORIDA* *Imports*—Indigo; cotton; train oil; ſpermaceti oil; whale-bone; ſkins of ſeals and ſea elephants; hides; Indian peltry.

Exports—Some wrought iron; a few woollen goods, chiefly flannels; linens, chiefly low priced; cotton goods.

German linens; Iriſh bounty linens; a few India piece goods.

NOOTKA *Imports*—The ſea otter furs, the only article of trade in this country, are all carried to China.

Exports—Some woollen and cotton goods; linens; hats; earthen-ware; glaſs; wrought iron; watches.

Coffee; ſugar; tea; bar-iron; cambricks; muſlins; tobacco; rum; wine; all in ſmall quantities.

ASIA OR EAST INDIA AND CHINA *Import*—Books; canes; drugs, gums and oils of a great variety of kinds; indigo in large quantities; cochineal; China ink; galls; turmeric; ſeed lack; ſhell lack; ſtick lack; ivory; fans; cane mats; cinnamon; cloves; mace; nutmeg; pepper; Cayenne pepper; ginger; ſago; ſugar; tea; a little rice; coffee; preſerved fruits; mother of pearl ſhell, and ſpoons made of it; cowries; cornelian ſtones for ſeals; ſalt-petre; arrack; cotton; cotton yarn; Carmania, and goats wool; raw ſilk of Bengal and China; calicoes and muſlins of great variety of kinds; great variety of piece goods deſtined for exportation, the conſumption of them

* Ever ſince the peace of 1783 a few houſes in London have carried on a trade with Florida, by ſending Britiſh veſſels, under licences obtained from the Britiſh and Spaniſh governments; and the war has not interrupted the trade. The cotton of that country is of the quality of the upland cotton of Georgia, but much inferior to the ſea iſland cotton of that ſtate.

in

in Great Britain being prohibited; caſſia; ebony; ſandal; ſatin and ſapan woods; ſome wines carried from other countries.

Export—Apothecaries' ware; books, value 14,836 *l.*; pictures and prints; ſtationary; wrought and unwrought iron, ſteel, lead, and tin; wrought braſs, copper, pewter, and ſilver; tin plate ware; braſs and iron cannon, and other military ſtores; coals; earthen-ware; glaſs; painters' colours, oils, varniſh, &c.; cordage; ſail-cloth; ſhip chandlery of all kinds to a large amount, many veſſels being built in India; leather tanned and wrought; proviſions; beer; woollen goods; ſilk goods; linens; ſome cotton goods, 8,000 yards of Britiſh muſlins; wearing apparel; hats; haberdaſhery; coaches, chaiſes, &c; wax and tallow candles.

Cortex Peruvianus, ginſeng, and other drugs; a few groceries; chochineal; a little coral; Iriſh linens; German linens; tutenague; tar; rum; brandy; geneva; French, Portugal, Rheniſh, and Spaniſh wines; ſandal wood, and ſome other woods.

NEW HOLLAND *Imports*—A little wood; ſome birds.

Exports—Wrought iron; woollen, ſilk, cotton and linen goods; hardware.

Some groceries; ſpirits, and wine, all in ſmall quantities; Ruſſia linens.

AFRICA *Imports*—Gum arabic, ſandrake and ſenegal; camwood; ebony; redwood; ivory; a few oſtrich feathers; ſome ſkins.

Exports—Apothecaries' ware; wrought braſs; copper, iron; 80,806 guns; cutlaſſes; gun-powder; ſpirituous liquors; earthen-ware; glaſs; proviſions; beer; woollen, cotton and linen goods; wearing apparel.

Bar iron; bugles; cowries; ſugar; tea; groceries; rice; rum; brandy; geneva; Iriſh and German linens; India piece goods to a large amount.

SIERRA LEONE *Imports*—Nothing.

Exports—Cotton and linen goods; a few woollen goods; leather; hardware.

Some India piece goods; a few Iriſh and other linens; groceries; tobacco, &c.; all in ſmall quantities.

CAPE OF GOOD HOPE *Imports*—Some wine, cotton and ſkins.

Exports—Articles proper for the climate, of almoſt every kind. Drugs; grocery; linens; ſome proviſions; rum; brandy; geneva; tobacco; ſome wine; all in trifling quantities.

SOUTHERN FISHERY *Imports*—Nothing.

Exports—Brandy, geneva, and wine in ſmall quantities, being only for ſhip ſtores.

The following Tables will exhibit the number of veſſels and men employed in all parts of the United Kingdom in one year in carrying on its commerce.

An

An Account of the Number of Veſſels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the ſame (including their repeated Voyages) which entered inwards and cleared outwards, in the ſeveral Ports of England, from, or to, all Parts of the World, in the aggregate for the Year ending 5th January 1805; diſtinguiſhing Britiſh from Foreign Veſſels, and the Countries from which the ſaid Veſſels arrived, or to which they were bound.

England.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
Countries.	Britiſh.			Foreign.			Britiſh.			Foreign.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
America { Britiſh Colonies	298	36674	1998	—	—	—	297	50662	3128	—	—	—
America { United States	38	9578	554	329	81531	3956	34	8106	478	382	93927	4605
Africa - -	35	8788	698	3	228	21	166	38822	5222	10	2017	129
Barbary - -	5	621	30	1	300	17	2	190	16	—	—	—
Botany Bay, or New South Wales	1	438	38	—	—	—	1	222	25	—	—	—
Dantzic - -	165	32484	1404	104	25679	985	42	8436	394	41	12113	496
Denmark and Norway -	377	46181	3229	730	137466	7112	579	92034	4957	809	132927	6922
Eaſt Indies - -	46	43503	4699	1	281	23	63	58476	6419	—	—	—
Flanders - -	—	—	—	1	70	3	—	—	—	1	124	6
Florida - -	1	184	10	23	4898	241	1	151	9	11	2328	127
France - -	—	—	—	67	10301	501	—	—	—	9	1025	55
Germany - -	39	5285	286	136	14023	694	86	16207	769	181	23253	1093
Gibraltar and Streights -	25	4267	207	1	60	3	46	6396	393	11	1968	104
Greenland and Davis's Streights	84	25606	3357	—	—	—	77	23790	3011	—	—	—

Guernsey, Jersey, Alderney, &c.	487	37544	2193	3	252	15	744	49399	3128	2	244	13
Hamburg	—	—	—	4	1046	57	—	—	—	8	1654	75
Holland	4	1989	103	723	55700	3162	—	—	—	517	40354	2517
Honduras (Bay of)	26	6736	362	1	150	7	21	6041	387	—	—	—
Hudson's Bay	4	805	85	—	—	—	3	814	60	—	—	—
Ireland	4067	395587	21986	36	5341	272	4492	456165	24954	1	67	4
Isle of Man	347	11734	1092	1	116	8	342	13126	1008	—	—	—
Italy	29	4956	311	44	8468	469	16	2432	168	109	19535	1024
Malta	19	4334	235	—	—	—	19	2751	186	2	450	32
Nootka Sound	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	194	29
Portugal and Madeira	217	33884	1881	131	16019	1012	188	29635	1759	115	19089	1120
Prussia	542	121833	5283	1167	132050	5853	288	62180	2832	1182	132059	6364
Russia	651	143893	6211	24	8163	321	440	96594	4394	53	10421	461
Southern Fishery	36	10773	869	—	—	—	49	14283	1397	—	—	—
Spain and Canaries	20	3124	157	224	33903	1813	21	2916	183	254	39422	2196
Sweden	57	8923	466	137	22156	1262	66	10235	576	124	19408	1064
Turkey	13	2877	155	3	557	31	1	266	15	—	—	—
West Indies: British	444	136180	7642	—	—	—	502	154455	9343	—	—	—
West Indies: Conquered	163	40835	2469	2	333	24	170	44012	2765	—	—	—
West Indies: Foreign	23	5328	503	5	1104	76	—	—	—	5	691	42
Total in 1804	8173	1184944	68571	3901	560195	27938	8756	1248796	78016	3828	553267	28478
1803	9302	1368678	77209	3898	590129	30925	8838	1237460	78188	3453	543330	28703

An Account of the Number of Veſſels with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the ſame (including their repeated Voyages, which entered inwards and cleared outwards in the ſeveral Ports of Scotland, from, or to, all Parts of the World, in the aggregate, for the Year ending January 5, 1804, and detailed for the Year ending January 5, 1805; diſtinguiſhing Britiſh from Foreign Veſſels, and the Countries from whence the ſaid Veſſels arrived, or to which they were bound.

Scotland.	Inwards.						Outwards.					
Countries.	Britiſh.			Foreign.			Britiſh.			Foreign.		
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
America { Britiſh Colonies	62	11515	697	—	—	—	87	16838	1223	—	—	—
America { United States	34	7665	463	34	8049	402	24	5632	367	30	6851	355
Dantzic - -	4	321	21	—	—	—	5	515	30	—	—	—
Denmark and Norway	83	8284	488	228	27476	1761	134	16714	1233	162	20155	1243
Florida - -	—	—	—	1	153	8	—	—	—	1	153	8
Gibraltar and Streights	1	135	8	—	—	—	4	454	27	1	249	13
Germany - -	13	1676	94	1	95	6	30	3789	201	3	416	22
Greenland and Davis's Streights -	14	3885	521	—	—	—	15	4244	586	—	—	—
Guernſey, Jerſey, Alderney, &c. -	7	1025	49	—	—	—	6	690	40	—	—	—

Honduras (Bay of)		2	415	28	—	—	—	3	855	52	—	—	—
Holland	- -	—	—	—	63	5613	328	—	—	—	4	461	29
Ireland	- -	1576	95868	7470	2	263	15	1656	101114	7704	—	—	—
Malta	- -	1	155	10	—	—	—	2	258	19	—	—	—
Isle of Man	- -	14	712	49	—	—	—	30	1203	90	—	—	—
Italy	- -	3	408	25	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	249	11
Poland	- -	5	566	27	—	—	—	1	71	3	—	—	—
Portugal and Madeira		24	3796	237	—	—	—	9	1141	81	2	286	12
Prussia	- -	178	27200	1384	24	2190	114	102	14704	772	50	4289	255
Russia	- -	179	22036	1230	5	1404	65	118	14028	811	—	—	—
Spain and Canaries		2	242	13	3	565	29	6	963	51	2	247	15
Sweden	- -	49	3908	242	9	1296	78	30	3084	189	9	1228	66
West India Colonies	British	51	13049	809	—	—	—	77	20211	1582	—	—	—
	Conquered	33	7582	536	—	—	—	36	7982	671	—	—	—
	Foreign	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total in 1804		2335	210443	14408	370	47104	2806	2375	214490	15732	265	34582	2029
1803		2694	245692	15795	354	47905	2735	2234	207380	14752	209	31212	1711

An Account of the Number of Veſſels, with the Amount of their Tonnage, and the Number of Men and Boys employed in navigating the ſame, (including their repeated Voyages,) which entered inwards, and cleared outwards, in the ſeveral Ports of Ireland, from, or to, all Parts of the World, between the 5th of January 1804, and the 5th of January 1805, diſtinguiſhing Iriſh, Britiſh, and Foreign Veſſels, and the Countries from whence the ſaid Veſſels arrived, or to which they were bound.

Ireland.	Inwards.									General Total of all Veſſels entered Inwards.		
Countries.	Iriſh.			Britiſh.			Foreign.					
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Canaries	3	205	17	—	—	—	2	264	13	5	469	30
Denmark and Norway	27	4061	217	179	20750	1149	196	32423	2020	402	57234	3386
France	—	—	—	—	—	—	12	1217	106	12	1217	106
Germany	—	—	—	1	96	6	11	1871	109	12	1967	115
Holland	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	3314	215	25	3314	215
Italy	1	100	8	—	—	—	4	44	40	5	644	48
Madeiras	1	31	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	31	4
Portugal	11	1705	92	25	2958	186	67	6 44	619	103	11207	897
Pruſſia	4	611	27	51	10218	456	35	5699	338	90	16528	821

Ruſſia - -	5	713	40	37	4885	269	—	—	—	42	5598	309
Spain - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	40	5287	334	40	5287	334
Streights and Gibraltar	3	310	23	1	181	8	—	—	—	4	491	31
Sweden - -	—	—	—	2	129	9	41	4924	361	43	5053	370
Total Foreign Europe	55	7736	428	296	39217	2083	433	62087	4155	784	109040	6666
England - -	745	55949	3577	4483	467294	24421	5	317	32	5233	523560	28030
Guernſey - -	6	172	26	18	1190	86	—	—	—	24	1362	112
Jerſey - -	—	—	—	6	370	28	—	—	—	6	370	28
Man, Iſle - -	2	62	8	30	1078	114	—	—	—	32	1140	122
Scotland - -	397	20127	1678	1363	92304	6302	—	—	—	1760	112431	7980
Total Britiſh Europe	1150	76310	5289	5900	562236	30951	5	317	32	7055	638863	36272
America - -	38	6495	399	46	9165	519	96	17374	995	180	33034	1913
Total of all parts	1243	90541	6116	6242	510618	33553	534	79778	5182	8019	780937	44851

Ireland.	Outwards.									General Total of all Veſſels cleared Outwards.		
Countries.	Iriſh.			Britiſh.			Foreign.					
	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
Canaries	1	46	4	1	85	8	2	502	28	4	633	40
Denmark and Norway	19	2913	140	53	8200	397	161	27017	1655	233	38130	2192
France	—	—	—	—	—	—	3	283	22	3	283	22
Germany	1	156	4	—	—	—	2	198	14	3	354	18
Holland	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	174	7	1	174	7
Italy	—	—	—	—	—	—	8	1155	72	8	1155	72
Madeiras	1	31	3	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	31	3
Portugal	11	1422	88	9	1104	65	129	15373	1132	149	17899	1285
Pruſſia	1	240	10	4	916	40	24	4029	237	29	5185	287
Ruſſia	4	715	35	5	1024	45	1	257	12	10	1996	92
Spain	1	165	9	—	—	—	69	9256	629	70	9421	638
Streights and Gibraltar	6	530	42	—	—	—	3	383	30	9	913	72
Sweden	—	—	—	1	62	4	5	585	42	6	647	46
Total Foreign Europe	45	6218	335	73	11391	559	408	59212	3880	526	76821	4774
England	569	46053	2972	3665	382225	20451	39	4991	327	4273	433269	23714
Guernſey	4	196	20	13	1063	62	—	—	—	17	1259	82
Jerſey	1	24	3	9	527	40	—	—	—	10	551	43
Man, Iſle	28	613	133	40	1299	143	—	—	—	68	1921	276
Scotland	373	19040	1752	1065	74720	4934	2	329	15	1440	94089	6701
Total Britiſh Europe	975	65926	4880	4792	459834	25594	41	5320	342	5808	531080	30816
America	60	10790	617	148	35952	2184	75	13183	796	283	59925	3597
Total of all parts	1080	82934	5832	5013	507177	28337	531	78971	5093	6624	669082	39262

NAVIGATION ACTS. The origin of thoſe wiſe and patriotic ſtatutes, known by the name of Navigation Acts, has been already mentioned in vol. ii. p. 226, and it is intended in this place to fulfil the promiſe made in that part of the work, of giving a more particular account of theſe regulations. It has already been obſerved that the clamour of foreign nations againſt the navigation act of England, as the invention of Cromwell, is utterly without foundation. "The navigation ſyſtem of Great Britain," ſays Lord Sheffield, its able and patriotic defender, "has not been the work of an hour, or of a day; but has its decided ſanction from experience and from time, and has been brought to maturity by the growth of centuries. We are told of the vigour of Cromwell, and the animoſity of St. John *, and reſentment againſt the Dutch. But the navigation laws of England had a much earlier commencement; and the principle on which they were founded is to be traced in the early maritime ſyſtems of Europe, and was adopted not only in our charters for founding colonies in America, but long before thoſe charters were in exiſtence. The celebrated navigation code of Venice and Genoa, at the time thoſe wealthy republics enjoyed comparatively the commerce of the world, collected in the conſolato del mare, was very early introduced, and ſeems almoſt the original of the Engliſh ſyſtem. It was evidently a very great extenſion of, and improvement on the maritime ſyſtem of ancient Rhodes, whoſe naval laws were ſo far diſtinguiſhed as to have been adopted by the Romans. Even ſo far back as the 5th of Richard II. it was ordained, "that no merchandize ſhall be ſhipped out of "the realm, but in Britiſh ſhips, on pain of forfeiture;" and, though, ſubſequent to that period, for about one hundred years, in conſequence of the civil wars between the houſes of York and Lancaſter, there was little attention paid to maritime regulations by the policy of the times, the principles of the navigation ſyſtem occupied the care and attention of ſucceeding legiſlatures, until they were completely arranged and eſtabliſhed in one ſalutary code. In 1646, the firſt act was paſſed for more effectually ſecuring the trade of the Britiſh colonies in the Weſt Indies to Britiſh ſhipping. In 1651, the act, commonly called Cromwell's Act, was paſſed; and another act was paſſed in 1660, for the encouragement of Britiſh navigation, but incomparably better digeſted, and of more extenſive import. This act, by which the moſt deciſive protection was afforded to the carrying trade and ſhipping intereſts of the empire, has been juſtly term-

* St. John having brought propoſals to the government of Holland, which were haughtily refuſed, and having been, beſides, as he thought, perſonally inſulted by the States, loudly and effectually ſolicited the Engliſh council of ſtate to paſs the noble act of 1651. Ludlow's Mem. vol. i. p. 345.

ed by ſir Joſiah Child* the Charta Maritima of England; and Penſionary De Wit ſpeaks of it as likely, in its operation, "to deprive Holland of a great proportion of its trade." It is eſpecially and moſt wiſely provided by this act, that the Dutch merchants, who had hitherto been openly employed as agents or factors in the Britiſh colonies, "ſhall no longer exerciſe the occupation of merchants or factors in thoſe places."

From that moment the foreign outcry againſt that act was heard. By the Dutch, who had in a great degree monopolized the carrying trade, it was termed "a vile act and order;" and by the French it was loudly oppoſed and decried. But the ſame ſpirit and wiſdom by which they were planned continued to maintain them; and the time, I truſt, is not at hand, when they ſhall be renounced or ſuſpended, by a temporizing policy, to quiet foreign ſolicitation, or foreign menaces."

Of this great charter of the Britiſh naval intereſt as paſſed in 1660, the principal enacting clauſes are: 1. No goods or commodities whatſoever ſhall be imported into, or exported from, any of the king's lands, iſlands, plantations, or territories, in Aſia, Africa, or America, in any other than Engliſh, Iriſh, or plantation built ſhips, and whereof the maſter and at leaſt three fourths of the mariners ſhall be Engliſhmen, under forfeiture of ſhip and goods. 2. None but natural born ſubjects, or naturalized, ſhall henceforth exerciſe the occupation of a merchant or factor in thoſe places under forfeiture of goods and chattels †. 3. No goods of the growth, product, or manufacture, of Aſia, Africa, or America, ſhall be imported into England, but in ſuch ſhips as do truly belong to Engliſh people, either here or in the king's lands or plantations in thoſe parts, and navigated as in the firſt clauſe above ‡. 4. No goods or commodities of foreign growth, production, or manufacture, which ſhall be brought into England, Ireland, Jerſey, or Guernſey, &c. other than in ſhips built and navigated as aforeſaid, ſhall be ſhipped from any other place but the place of their growth, production, or manufacture, or from thoſe ports where they can only be, or uſually have been, brought, under forfeiture of ſhip and goods §.

* "Without this act," ſays ſir Joſiah, "we had not now [1683] been owners of one half of the ſhipping and trade, nor ſhould we have employed one half of the ſeamen which we do at preſent.

† This is an improvement upon the act of navigation of 1651. It was common to have Dutch merchants acting as factors and agents in Engliſh colonies.

‡ This clauſe ſecured the Eaſt-India, Guinea, and Levant companies, and alſo the American colonies, from foreign ſhips.

§ So lately as about the year 1755, twelve ſhips from Appenraide in Denmark were guilty of a breach of this clauſe by bringing timber to Liverpool, not of the growth of Denmark, and were obliged to compound for their delinquency; as were alſo two other ſhips from the ſame port next year for timber brought into Leith. So neceſſary is it for merchants to be acquainted with the mercantile laws of the countries they propoſe to trade to.

5. Such

5. Such ſalted fiſh, train oil, and whale fins (as have been uſually caught, &c. by the Engliſh or Iriſh) not caught, cured, &c. by Engliſh or Iriſh, nor imported in veſſels truly Engliſh and navigated as above, ſhall pay double aliens' cuſtoms. 6. No goods or proviſions ſhall be carried coaſt-wiſe, from one Engliſh port to another, in veſſels whereof any ſtranger, not naturalized, is owner in whole or in part, and which ſhall not be navigated as before. 7. No goods of the growth, &c. of Ruſſia, as alſo no maſts, timber, or boards, foreign ſalt, pitch, tar, roſin, hemp, flax, raiſins, figs, prunes, olive oil, corn, ſugar, potaſh, wines, vinegar, and ſpirits, ſhall be imported in any ſhips but ſuch whereof the true owners are Engliſh, and navigated as aforeſaid; nor any currants, or other goods of the Turks dominions, but in Engliſh built ſhips, and navigated as aforeſaid; excepting only ſuch foreign ſhips as are built of that country of which the ſaid goods are the growth, &c. or of ſuch port where the foreſaid goods can only be, or moſt uſually are, firſt ſhipped for tranſportation; and whereof the maſter and three fourths of the mariners at leaſt are of the ſaid country or place. 8. To prevent the colouring or concealing of aliens' goods, all the foreign goods before named, which ſhall be henceforth imported into England in ſhips not belonging to England, and not navigated as aforeſaid, ſhall be deemed aliens' goods, and ſhall pay all ſtrangers' cuſtoms and port dues. 9. To prevent the like frauds in colouring the buying of foreign ſhips, no foreign built ſhip ſhall enjoy the privileges of one belonging to England, till firſt the owners make it appear that they are not aliens: and they ſhall ſwear that they gave a valuable conſideration (to be then ſpecified) for ſuch ſhip, and that no foreigner has any ſhare therein. Of all which a certificate ſhall be produced, and a regiſter kept *. 10. This act ſhall not extend to merchandize from any place within the Straits of Gibraltar, if they be brought from the uſual ports there, though not from the place of their growth, production, or manufacture, ſo as the ſhip and and crew be qualified as above. The like as to all Eaſt India commodities brought from any place eaſt of the Cape of Good Hope. Moreover Engliſh ſhips, navigated as above, may import from Spain, Portugal, the Canaries, Azores, and Madeira, all ſorts of goods of the plantations of Spain or Portugal. 11. Bullion, prize goods, corn, and ſalt, and fiſh from Scotland, in Scotch built ſhips, and three fourths of the mariners the king's ſubjects, are excepted out of this act; and ſeal oil from Ruſſia, in Engliſh ſhips, with three fourths Engliſh

* Ever ſince this act paſſed, there is an officer eſtabliſhed at the cuſtom houſe, called the *ſurveyor of the act of navigation*, who keeps a regiſter of all Britiſh built veſſels.

mariners. 12. French ſhips in our ports ſhall pay 5s. per ton, ſo long as Engliſh ſhips in French ports pay 50 ſols per ton *. 13. No ſugar, tobacco, cotton, wool, indigo, ginger, fuſtic, or other dying woods of the growth or manufacture of our Aſian African, or American colonies, ſhall be ſhipped from the ſaid colonies to any place but to England, Ireland †, or to ſome other of his majeſty's ſaid plantations, there to be landed; under forfeiture as before. And to make effectual this laſt clauſe, (for the ſole benefit of our own navigation and people,) the owners of the ſhips ſhall give bonds, at their ſetting out, for the due performance thereof."

Theſe were called enumerated commodities; and by the acts of the 15th, 22d, and 23d, of this reign (the firſt for the encouragement of trade, and the others for preventing the planting of tobacco in England, and for regulating the plantation trade) the enumerated commodities in the firſt act were expreſsly prohibited to be carried to Ireland till firſt landed in England. The liſt has undergone frequent alterations, and probably many others will be hereafter found neceſſary.

According to circumſtances of various times the operation of this act has been partially ſuſpended, and the benefits of a free commerce with Great Britain and her colonies allowed for limited periods to other nations. Of late, too, ſeveral acts have paſſed, directly militating againſt the navigation laws, which are thus enumerated and remarked on by Lord Sheffield. The law commonly known by the name of the Dutch Property Act, and which very much extended the privileges of neutral bottoms, was paſſed in the 35th of George III. for the avowed purpoſe of ſecuring the property of the Dutch emigrants ‡.

In the next year, the 36th of George III. c. 17. an act was paſſed giving power to the privy council to permit all veſſels, under the ſame pretence, to bring from any country goods of any ſort, which, according to the navigation laws, could be imported only by Britiſh ſhips, duly navigated, or by ſhips duly navigated alſo of the countries whence the goods were brought.

According to this law all merchandize imported in foreign ſhips was to pay no duty, until taken out of the warehouſe for conſumption, though the like merchandize, if brought in Bri-

* The Dutch were exempted from this impoſition of fifty ſols per ton by the treaty of Ryſwick, much to the damage of France, (as the French council of trade affirm in their report 1701) ſince that duty, which before produced from 6 to 700,000 livres, now (1701) produces but 100,000.

† Ireland is left out in all ſubſequent acts, and expreſsly excepted in that of 22, 23, Chas. II. c. 26.

‡ This act, though temporary in its object, laid the foundation of, and furniſhed the pretence for the ſubſequent acts, by which ſuch objectionable and unneceſſary powers were given to privy councils, &c.

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tiſh veſſels, was charged with duty immediately on importation. Here, then, was a manifeſt injury to the Britiſh merchants; yet if Britiſh ſhips had been permitted to enter their goods under the ſame power there would have been ſtill greater miſchief in the regulation: for, in ſuch caſe, we ſhould have had no Britiſh ſhips duly navigated; or, at leaſt, thoſe which were not duly navigated, and foreign veſſels, would have ſtill enjoyed ſuperior advantages, becauſe they could have more eaſily completed their crews, and at lower wages.

Theſe acts of the 35th and 36th were further continued by the acts of the 39th and 40th of the king, until the 1ſt of January, 1804; and finally, an act paſſed in the 42d of the king, to terminate alſo in the year 1804, for repealing theſe ſeveral acts, or ſuch of them as had not been previouſly repealed, and for enabling the privy council to permit goods to be imported in ſhips of any country, of not leſs than 100 tons, or in Britiſh ſhips navigated according to law, from any part of America or the Weſt Indies, not under the dominion of his majeſty. "For theſe laws, lord Sheffield proceeds, there was not even a pretence, but ſuch as referred to temporary circumſtances. During the late war, when in conſequence of the diſturbed ſtate of the greater part of the two hemiſpheres, a very conſiderable portion of the produce of the world was likely to be brought into this country for ſafety, or for a market, it was thought adviſable, for the preſent to ſuffer all goods to be imported in neutral ſhips; and a large importation took place of the product of the countries at war, as well as of *neutral nations*; and the goods were permitted to be warehouſed, both for *home conſumption*, and re-exportation. But although theſe laws may have ariſen, in the whole, or in part, from ſuch principles or ſuch pretences, they are not, therefore, to be vindicated. Some of them afforded great advantages to foreign ſhips, in permitting articles of merchandize to be ſtored, which they did not allow to Britiſh veſſels; and all of them, in principle, obviouſly amounted to a complete ſuſpenſion of an eſſential part of one navigation code, and were admitted through laxity of principles, and want of perception of the true ſpirit of that ſyſtem. They were favoured indeed, by the idea, that merchandize could not be brought into this country without leaving ſomething behind on re-exportation. But here ends the apology which is to be offered for them; and why any of them ſhould have been allowed to continue in force after the peace, and till 1804, it will not be eaſy to aſſign a reaſon. Theſe acts, if they augmented the quantity of merchandize brought to this country, certainly increaſed, in a very unneceſſary degree, the quantity of foreign tonnage employed in our carrying trade; and all the advantages thus held out to foreign ſhipping were

peculiarly calculated to eſtabliſh that trade in the hands of the Americans, on the concluſion of the war, when ſuch a number of tranſports, and ſo many ſhips, ſeamen, and artificers were to be diſcharged from the public ſervice, as would be fully equal to the carrying on of the whole of our commerce. Under ſuch circumſtances, therefore, what was to be the probable reſult? Thoſe ſhips were to be laid up, by diſcouragement, in our ports to rot, and thoſe ſeamen, together with the numerous claſſes of perſons occupied in ſhip building, were to be diſperſed abroad in ſearch of employment, and many to be ſeduced into the ſervice of other nations, or to paſs over to America, and; conſequently they and their progeny to be loſt to their native country for ever."

Dr. Adam Smith ſtates the following objections againſt the navigation act in general. "The act of navigation is not favourable to foreign commerce, or to the growth of that opulence which can ariſe from it. The intereſt of a nation in its commercial relations to foreign nations is, like that of a merchant with regard to the different people with whom he deals, to buy as cheap and ſell as dear as poſſible. But it will be moſt likely to buy cheap, when by the moſt perfect freedom of trade it encourages all nations to bring to it the goods which it has occaſion to purchaſe; and, for the ſame reaſon, it will be moſt likely to ſell dear, when its markets are thus filled with the greateſt numbers of buyers. The act of navigation, it is true, lays no burden upon foreign ſhips that come to export the produce of Britiſh induſtry. Even the ancient aliens' duty, which uſed to be paid upon all goods exported as well as imported, has, by ſeveral ſubſequent acts, been taken off from the greater part of the articles of exportation. But if foreigners, either by prohibitions or high duties, are hindered from coming to ſell, they cannot always afford to come to buy; becauſe coming without a cargo, they muſt loſe the freight from their own country to Great Britain. By diminiſhing the number of ſellers, therefore, we neceſſarily diminiſh that of buyers, and are thus likely not only to buy foreign goods dearer, but to ſell our own cheaper, than if there was a more perfect freedom of trade. As defence, however, is of much more importance than opulence, the act of navigation is perhaps the wiſeſt of all the commercial regulations of England. When by the act of navigation, he further obſerves, England aſſumed to herſelf the monopoly of the colony trade, the foreign capitals which had before been employed in it were neceſſarily withdrawn from it. The Engliſh capital, which had before carried on but part of it, was now to carry on the whole. The capital which had before ſupplied the colonies with but a part of the goods which they want-

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ed from Europe, was now all that was employed to ſupply them with the whole. But it could not ſupply them with the whole, and the goods with which it did ſupply them were neceſſarily ſold very dear. The capital which had before bought but a part of the ſurplus produce of the colonies, was now all that was employed to buy the whole. But it could not buy the whole at any thing near the old price, and, therefore whatever it did buy it neceſſarily bought very cheap. But in an employment of capital in which the merchant ſold very dear and bought very cheap, the profit muſt have been very great, and much above the ordinary level of profit in other branches of trade. This ſuperiority of profit in the colony trade could not fail to draw from other branches of trade a part of the capital which had before been employed in them. But this revulſion of capital, as it muſt have gradually increaſed the competition of capitals in the colony trade, ſo it muſt have gradually diminiſhed that competition in all thoſe other branches of trade; as it muſt have gradually lowered the profits of the one, ſo it muſt have gradually raiſed thoſe of the other, till the profits of all came to a new level, different from and ſomewhat higher than that at which they had been before. This double effect, of drawing capital from all other trades, and of raiſing the rate of profit ſomewhat higher than it otherwiſe would have been in all trades, was not only produced by this monopoly upon its firſt eſtabliſhment, but has continued to be produced by it ever ſince.

Firſt, this monopoly has been continually drawing capital from all other trades to be employed in that of the colonies. Though the wealth of Great Britain has increaſed very much ſince the eſtabliſhment of the act of navigation, it certainly has not increaſed in the ſame proportion as that of the colonies. But the foreign trade of every country naturally increaſes in proportion to its wealth; its ſurplus produce in proportion to its whole produce; and Great Britain having ingroſſed to herſelf almoſt the whole of what may be called the foreign trade of the colonies, and her capital not having increaſed in the ſame proportion as the extent of that trade, ſhe could not carry it on without continually withdrawing from other branches of trade ſome part of the capital which had before been employed in them, as well as withholding from them a great deal more which would otherwiſe have gone to them. Since the eſtabliſhment of the act of navigation, accordingly, the colony trade has been continually increaſing, while many other branches of foreign trade, particularly of that to other parts of Europe, have been continually decaying. Our manufactures for foreign ſale, inſtead of being ſuited as before the act of navigation, to the neighbouring market of Europe, or

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to the more diſtant one of the countries which lie round the Mediterranean ſea, have, the greater part of them, been accommodated to the ſtill more diſtant one of the colonies to the market in which they have the monopoly, rather than to that in which they have many competitors. The cauſes of decay in other branches of foreign trade, which, by ſir Mathew Decker and other writers, have been ſought for in the exceſs and improper mode of taxation, in the high price of labour, in the increaſe of luxury, &c. may all be found in the over-growth of the colony trade. The merchantile capital of Great Britain, though very great, yet not being infinite; and though greatly increaſed ſince the act of navigation, yet not being increaſed in the ſame proportion as the colony trade, that trade could not poſſibly be carried on without withdrawing ſome part of that capital from other branches of trade, nor conſequently without ſome decay of thoſe other branches. England, it muſt be obſerved, was a great trading country, her mercantile capital was very great, and likely to become ſtill greater and greater every day; not only before the act of navigation had eſtabliſhed the monopoly of the colony trade, but before that trade was very conſiderable.

Secondly, this monopoly has neceſſarily contributed to keep up the rate of profit in all the different branches of Britiſh trade higher than it naturally would have been, had all nations been allowed a free trade to the Britiſh colonies. The monopoly of the colony trade, as it neceſſarily drew towards that trade a greater proportion of the capital of Great Britain than what would have gone to it of its own accord; ſo by the expulſion of all foreign capitals it neceſſarily reduced the whole quantity of capital employed in that trade below what it naturally would have been in caſe of a free trade. But, by leſſening the competition of capitals in that branch of trade, it neceſſarily raiſed the rate of profit in that branch. By leſſening too the competition of Britiſh capitals in all other branches of trade, it neceſſarily raiſed the rate of Britiſh profit in all thoſe other branches.

Whatever raiſes in any country the ordinary rate of profit higher than it otherwiſe would be, neceſſarily ſubjects that country both to an abſolute and to a relative diſadvantage in every branch of trade of which ſhe has not the monopoly.

Our merchants frequently complain of the high wages of Britiſh labour as the cauſe of their manufactures being undersold in foreign markets; but they are ſilent about the high profits of ſtock. They complain of the extravagant gain of other people, but they ſay nothing of their own. The high profits of Britiſh ſtock, however, may contribute towards raiſing the

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price of Britiſh manufactures in many caſes as much, and in ſome perhaps more, than the high wages of Britiſh labour.

It is in this manner that the capital of Great Britain, one may juſtly ſay, has partly been drawn and partly been driven from the greater part of the different branches of trade of which ſhe has not the monopoly; from the trade of Europe in particular, and from that of the countries which lie round the Mediterranean ſea.

It has partly been drawn from thoſe branches of trade, by the attraction of ſuperior profit in the colony trade in conſequence of the continual increaſe of that trade, and of the continual inſufficiency of the capital which had carried it on one year to carry it on the next.

It has partly been driven from them, by the advantage which the high rate of profit, eſtabliſhed in Great Britain, gives to other countries, in all the different branches of trade of which Great Britain has not the monopoly.

In theſe ſtatements, Adam Smith is accuſed of deſerting fact and experience, for the ſake of ſpeculation and theory; his arguments are combated with great force, and the miſchief of all the indulgences and conceſſions by which the Britiſh government has weakened the operation of the navigation law is clearly pointed out by many authors, and particularly by lord Sheffield, whoſe publication called *Strictures on the neceſſity of inviolably preſerving the navigation and colonial Syſtem of Great Britain*, merits the moſt attentive conſideration. Following the ſame line of argument with the noble author, and adopting many of his calculations and deductions, Mr. Oddy forms the following concluſion. The neceſſity and policy of ſuſpending the Britiſh navigation act can be juſtified in time of war only; then it is a ſource of profit to foreign nations at the expence of Great Britain; but if we are to judge of the proſperity of the country from paſt experience, that it can ſupport great burthens, it is the ſhipping which is the fundamental cauſe of our bearing thoſe burthens; and, therefore, it appears policy to exempt Britiſh ſhipping from taxation as a ſource of revenue. We ſhould conſider, that though the goods can bear a tax, the carrier may not be able to do ſo; and when the queſtion is about the nation being its own carrier, matters ſhould be managed not only with great delicacy, but with great liberality; for any tax upon our ſhipping acts as a premium to foreign ſhipping, conſequently prejudicial to our own. It has always been a maxim of nations, and a juſt one too, that individual proſperity ſhould give way to the welfare of a ſtate; but where both can be materially benefited, then policy commands that we ſhould ſecure thoſe advantages. The

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navigation act of this country is the foundation on which the coloſſal monument of our naval victories, glories, and national power, is built; and although our ſuperiority has been ſo much exclaimed againſt by all, a French author, the moſt conſpicuous in the ranks when iſſuing his ſplenetic envy againſt Britain exerciſing the ſovereignty of the ſeas, has candidly aſked, "What nation having the power would not do the ſame?" When then our exiſtence, as a great and powerful nation, depends upon our navy, and when our ſhipping is a nurſery for that navy, every protection and facility ſhould be given to promote it; every reſtraint or burthen to diſcourage it ſhould be done away. It is a floating, inſecure property of individuals, always precarious and liable to loſs; it therefore requires the foſtering aid of government, when we have near us, at home, competitors like the northern nations; and acroſs the Atlantic the Americans, whoſe enterprizing ſpirit and vigilance is making head in a more formidable manner than we are aware.

MERCHANT SHIPS. The extenſive commerce carried on by means of veſſels of this deſcription has given riſe to a variety of regulations which will be noticed in the order adopted by Mr. Abbott, in his treatiſe on the law of Merchant ſhips and ſeamen.

PROPERTY,—One or more perſons may acquire the *property of a ſhip* by building it at their expence, or by purchaſing it of another, who has authority to diſpoſe of it. Upon the death of the owner, his intereſt devolves upon his perſonal repreſentatives. In the caſe of purchaſe however it is neceſſary that the perſon who takes upon him to ſell, ſhould have power to do ſo; for although a ſale of other goods by the perſon who is in poſſeſſion of them does in many caſes veſt the property in the buyer, even when the ſeller himſelf has neither property in them, nor authority to diſpoſe of them, the ſame cannot take place with reſpect to ſhips, as there is no open market for the ſale of them. Indeed this ſpecies of property appears from very early times to have been evidenced by written documents, and at preſent always is ſo, which other moveable goods rarely are; and therefore the buyer has in this inſtance the means of aſcertaining the title of any perſon who offers to ſell, and can ſeldom be deceived except by his own fault. The maſter of a ſhip poſſeſſes every power neceſſary for the employment and navigation of the ſhip; but he has not, unleſs in a caſe of extreme neceſſity, authority to ſell the ſhip; he may however, in caſe of neceſſity, borrow money upon the credit of the ſhip or its furniture with the aſſent of the crew. He may alſo, in caſes of extreme neceſſity, ſell the ſhip, but no perſon can ſafely purchaſe one of the maſter in any other caſe; and although he be himſelf

ſelf part owner of the ſhip, yet will not his ſale be good for more than his own part; for the intereſt of the part owners is ſo far diſtinct, that one of them cannot diſpoſe of the ſhare of another; whereas in articles of ordinary ſale, one partner may in general transfer the whole property, if the tranſaction be without fraud.

The effect of this interdiction of ſale has been frequently evaded in foreign countries, by procuring a ſentence of condemnation and ſale of a ſhip, as unfit for ſervice, from ſome court or judge having juriſdiction in maritime affairs. No ſuch juriſdiction is known to the law of England. Theſe condemnations, as they are called, ſometimes made abroad, upon the ſurvey and report of captains or carpenters, have no binding force in this country, but the fact, upon which they profeſs to be founded, may be litigated by the parties intereſted in diſputing it.

The property in a ſhip being always evidenced by written documents; theſe documents not only furniſh the owner with proof of his property, but alſo enable him to diſpoſe of it, when the ſhip is at ſea, or in a foreign port. When a ſhip is here in the country of its owner, and a delivery of actual poſſeſſion is neceſſary to give a perfect title to the buyer, in caſe of a ſale of the whole ſhip; for although as between buyer and ſeller the ſale may be completed by payment of the price with delivery of poſſeſſion, yet if the buyer ſuffer the ſeller to remain in poſſeſſion, and act as owner, and the ſeller in the mean time become bankrupt, the property will be conſidered as remaining in him to be diſpoſed of for the benefit of his creditors; and ſometimes alſo, if an execution iſſue upon a judgment againſt the ſeller, the ſale may be deemed fraudulent and void as againſt the party, who has obtained the judgment. But in caſe of a ſale, or an agreement for ſale, of a part only, it has been thought ſufficient, if the vendor, having delivered the muniments of his title, ceaſed from the time to act as a part owner, actual delivery of a part being ſaid to be impoſſible.

Another mode of acquiring property in a ſhip is by capture from an enemy in time of war, legalized and ſanctioned by a ſentence of condemnation in a court of the capturing power, conſtituted according to the law of nations. In this caſe however, if the capture is made by a ſhip belonging to his majeſty, the prize is formally condemned to the king, and the value diſtributed among the captors; and if the capture is made by a private ſhip, in which caſe the ſentence is in form a condemnation to the captors, a ſale will always be the moſt convenient mode of aſcertaining the value, both for the purpoſe of diſtribution among the captors, and of payment of the duties to the

king; and the acts of parliament which give to prizes the privileges of Britiſh ſhips, preſume a ſale and provide regulations accordingly. Capture by pirates who are merely robbers at ſea, does not diveſt the property of the owner; and in a very early period of our hiſtory a law was made for the reſtitution of property ſo taken, if found within the realm, belonging as well to ſtrangers as to Engliſhmen. But capture by an enemy, in the exerciſe of war between two nations, does, according to the laws of nations, wholly diveſt the property of the owner, and transfer it to the captor or the ſovereign of his ſtate at ſome period.

Register. All commercial nations have, for the advancement of their individual proſperity, conferred various privileges of trade upon the ſhips belonging to their own countrymen; and the legiſlature of this nation has for the ſame purpoſe, at different periods, enacted laws ſuitable to the circumſtances of the times, requiring, for the exerciſe of ſome particular branches of commerce, ſhips not only of the property of its own ſubjects, but alſo of the built of its own dominions. It has however at all times been the policy of the legiſlature to confine the privileges of our trade, as far as was conſiſtent with the extent of it, to ſhips built within the king's dominions; but it was reſerved for the preſent reign to behold the ſhip building of the country advanced to ſuch a ſtate as to warrant the confinement of theſe privileges excluſively to ſhips of that deſcription, or taken as prize in war. And accordingly this meaſure was carried into execution by a ſtatute, made in the 26th year of his preſent majeſty's reign; reſerving however to ſuch foreign built ſhips as were then the property of his ſubjects, the privileges to which they were then entitled by the exiſting laws. For the more effectual execution of this important meaſure of public policy, various new regulations were introduced, to aſcertain the built and property of ſhips, which have been ſince improved by ſubſequent ſtatutes, as experience ſhewed that ſome particulars, notwithſtanding the great attention paid to the original ſtatute, and the great talents employed in framing it, had not been ſufficiently provided for by it. Theſe proviſions are not leſs happily calculated to prevent the commiſſion of private fraud upon individuals, than to advance the public policy of the ſtate, by the notoriety of property obtained through the medium of a *public regiſter*, a meaſure adopted with numerous improvements from the wiſdom of former times. The ſubject of theſe proviſions are all merchant ſhips employed upon the ſea, whether in the coaſting trade or diſtant voyages, having a deck, or being of the burthen of *fifteen* tons and upwards; and either built in Great Britain, or Ireland, Jerſey, Guernſey, the

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Iſle of Man, or the colonies, plantations, iſlands, and territories under the dominion of his majeſty, in Aſia, Africa, or America; or taken in lawful war and condemned as prize; with the exception of "veſſels not exceeding thirty tons, and not having "a whole or fixed deck, and being employed wholly in the "fiſhery on the banks or ſhores of Newfoundland, and of the "parts adjacent, or on the banks or ſhores of the provinces of "Quebec, Nova Scotia, or New Brunſwick, adjacent to the "gulf of Saint Lawrence, and to the north of Cape Canſo, or "of the iſlands within the ſame, or in trading coaſtwiſe within "the ſaid limits; which latter veſſels are not liable to be "regiſtered, nor to any hindrance or moleſtation for not being "regiſtered."

Such ſhips, however, muſt belong to ſome of his majeſty's ſubjects not residing in any country which is not under the dominion of his majeſty, unleſs he be a member of ſome Britiſh factory, or agent for, or co-partner in, a houſe or co-partnerſhip actually carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland.

No ſhip ſhall be deemed Britiſh built, or enjoy the privilege belonging to that character, *if rebuilt, or repaired, in a foreign port at an expence exceeding fifteen ſhillings per ton*, unleſs ſuch repairs ſhall be neceſſary by reaſon of extraordinary damage ſuſtained during her abſence from the king's dominions, and to enable her to perform her voyage, and return to the king's dominions in ſafety; and unleſs, before the repairs are made, the maſter ſhall report upon oath, or affirmation if a quaker, her condition to the Britiſh Conſul, or chief Britiſh officer, if there be any on the ſpot, and cauſe her to be ſurveyed by two perſons to be approved of by him, and deliver to him in writing the particulars of the damage ſuſtained; and verify upon oath, or affirmation, the particulars and amount of the repairs, and the neceſſity of them; which ſuch conſul or officer is required to certify under his hand and ſeal. And if a ſhip is repaired in a foreign port, the maſter ſhall, if required, make proof on oath, or by affirmation, of the nature and amount of the expence of the repairs, before the principal officer of the cuſtoms, at the port within his majeſty's dominions at which he ſhall firſt arrive; and if the expence ſhall exceed fifteen ſhillings per ton, and the maſter ſhall not deliver the certificate before mentioned, the ſhip ſhall be deemed foreign built.

PLACE. The place of regiſtry is in general the port from and to which the ſhip ſhall uſually trade, or, being a new ſhip, ſhall intend to trade; and at or near which the huſband, or acting owner or owners reſide, but four of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England, or three in Scotland, may, if they ſee fit,

authorize the regiſter to be made in a different port; and prize ſhips, condemned in Guernſey, Jerſey, or the Iſle of Man, muſt, in order to ſecure the duties, be regiſtered either at Southampton, Weymouth, Exeter, Plymouth, Falmouth, Liverpool, or Whitehaven.

CERTIFICATE. In order to obtain a certificate of regiſtry in the caſe of a new ſhip, the perſon applying muſt produce a full and true account under the hand of the builder, of the denomination of the ſhip, time and place of building, tonnage, and name of the firſt purchaſer, and muſt make oath that the ſhip is the ſame as thus deſcribed by the builder. In the caſe of a prize ſhip, the owner muſt produce a certificate of the condemnation, under the hand and ſeal of the judge of the court, and an account in writing of all the particulars, contained in the form of the certificate of regiſtry, made and ſubſcribed by one or more ſkilful perſons, to be appointed by the court to ſurvey the ſhip; and muſt alſo make oath of the identity of the ſhip: and if the prize has been condemned in the foreign colonies, oath muſt be made of the ſum for which the ſhip was ſold, and an account of that ſum muſt be ſubjoined to the certificate, in order that the duties may be paid upon the ſhip's arrival in Great Britain; where indeed they muſt be paid, whether the ſhip has been ſold or not, before the ſhip can be intitled to the privileges. And further, if the prize was a ſhip of war, the pre-emption of the ſhip, furniture, and ſtores, muſt be offered to the principal officers and commiſſioners of the navy; and the pre-emption of the guns, arms, and ordnance ſtores, muſt be offered to the maſter-general and principal officers of the ordnance; and their certificate of the tender of them, and of their refuſal to purchaſe, produced to the officers appointed to make regiſtry.

OATH. Before the regiſter is made, an oath muſt be taken and ſubſcribed in the form ſet forth in the ſtatutes. This oath, in the caſe of private perſons, is to be made by the owner, if only one; if two owners, and both reſident within twenty miles of the place of regiſtry, by both; if both or either be reſident at a greater diſtance, by one only: if more than two owners, by the greater part, not exceeding three, if reſident within twenty miles; or by one, if all are reſident at a greater diſtance; and if three or more, and three do not attend, oath muſt further be made that the abſent are not reſident within twenty miles, and have not wilfully abſented themſelves to avoid taking the oath, or are prevented by illneſs from attending. In caſe of the Eaſt India Company or other corporation, the oath is to be made by the ſecretary or other officer authorized by the corporation. But as ſhips are ſometimes built in Newfoundland, and in thoſe parts

parts of the provinces of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunſwick, adjacent to the Gulph of Saint Lawrence, and to the North of Cape Canſo, on account of owners reſiding in his majeſty's European dominions, the oath may, in the abſence of all the owners, be taken there by the huſband or principal agent of the ſhip, and a certificate of regiſter granted to be in force until the ſhip's arrival at ſome port in the king's European dominions, where it may be regiſtered on the oath of the owners; and then the certificate becomes void, and the ſhip is to be regiſtered anew upon the oath of the owners, as in the caſe of ſhips built at home. The oath to be thus made contains the name and deſcription of the veſſel, the name of the maſter, and of every part owner, with other particulars tending to prove them to be ſubjects of his Majeſty by birth, denization, or naturalization; and concludes with a poſitive averment, that no foreigner, directly or indirectly, hath any ſhare or intereſt in the ſhip.

VIEW. And in order to obtain a true and accurate deſcription of the ſhip, one or more perſons appointed by the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or in the iſlands, &c. by the commanders in chief, are to go on board, and examine, and admeaſure the ſhip: and if it is neceſſary to take the admeaſurement, while the ſhip is afloat, are to do ſo in the particular mode preſcribed by the ſtatutes. The regiſter to be made, when all theſe previous ſteps have been taken, ſpecifies the name, occupation, and reſidence of every owner; the name of the ſhip; the place to which ſhe belongs; the name of the maſter; the time and place of the built, or capture, and date of condemnation; the name of the ſurveying officer, the number of decks and maſts; the length, breadth, height between decks, or depth of the hold, tonnage; particular kind and manner of building; gallery, and kind of head, if there be any. And of this regiſter a certificate is to be granted by the collector or comptroller of the cuſtoms in Great Britain or the Iſle of Man, or the governor or lieutenant governor, or commander in chief, and principal officer of the revenues of the cuſtoms in Jerſey, or Guernſey, or the foreign territories.

BOND. But before the certificate of regiſtry is delivered out, a bond muſt be executed by the maſter of the ſhip, and ſuch of the owners as perſonally attend, before the perſon authorized to grant the certificate, or before any other perſon, and at any other place, by permiſſion of the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, or of the commander in chief of the European iſlands or foreign territories before mentioned; in a penalty, varying in proportion to the burden of the ſhip, but never exceeding 1000*l.* as a ſecurity that the certificate ſhall not be lent, ſold, or diſpoſed of,

but ſolely uſed for the ſervice of the ſhip for which it is granted; and in caſe of the loſs, capture, or deſtruction of the ſhip, or of the transfer of the whole or any ſhare of it to a foreigner, be delivered up to the perſons authorized by the ſtatute to receive it.

CHANGE OF PROPRIETORS. Whenever the maſter of the ſhip is changed, the certificate muſt be delivered to the perſon authorized to make regiſtry at the port where the change ſhall take place, who is to indorſe upon it a memorandum of the change, and give notice thereof to the officer of the port of regiſter, who is to make a memorandum of it in the book of regiſters, and give notice thereof to the commiſſioners of cuſtoms: and the new maſter muſt execute a freſh bond ſimilar to the original ſecurity.

NAME OF SHIP. To prevent the frauds formerly committed by changing the names of ſhips; the name, by which a ſhip has been regiſtered, muſt never be changed, and muſt be painted, with the name of the port to which ſhe belongs, in a conſpicuous manner on the ſtern of the ſhip.

SHAPE. If any regiſtered ſhip is altered afterwards in form or burden, by being lengthened or built upon, or changed from a ſloop to a brigantine, or from one denomination of veſſel to another, by the mode of rigging, or fitting, ſuch ſhip muſt be regiſtered anew, as ſoon as ſhe returns to the port to which ſhe belongs, or to any other, in which ſhe may be regiſtered.

NUMBER. The certificates thus granted, are to be numbered progreſſively by the perſons granting them, beginning a numeration every year; they are alſo to copy them into a book to be kept for that purpoſe, and tranſmit exact copies to the commiſſioners of cuſtoms at London, or Edinburgh, according to the department to which they belong; and copies of thoſe tranſmitted to Edinburgh are afterwards to be tranſmitted to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England.

PRODUCTION OF CERTIFICATE. The maſter of every regiſtered ſhip muſt, on demand, produce the certificate of regiſtry to the principal officer of every port in his Majeſty's dominions, or to the Britiſh conſul, or chief Britiſh officer, in any foreign port, to which he ſhall arrive, under the penalty of 100 *l.*

LOSS. So valuable an inſtrument ought to be kept with the greateſt care; but as it may nevertheleſs happen to be loſt or miſlaid, a new regiſter and certificate may be granted upon taking the oath before mentioned, and entering into a bond for delivering up the old certificate, if found, and making no improper uſe of it. If the loſs be diſcovered, when a ſhip belong-

ing to this country is in the plantations abroad, the certificate granted there will be in force only until her return home.

DETENTION. And as it has ſometimes happened that the maſter of the ſhip, who is neceſſarily intruſted with the poſſeſſion of the certificate, while the ſhip is at ſea, has obſtinately refuſed to deliver it, when the owners have had occaſion for it; the legiſlature has twice endeavoured to provide a remedy for this evil. Firſt, by a ſtatute made in the 22d year of his preſent Majeſty's reign, by which it is enacted, "That on complaint made on oath, by the owner of any veſſel, whoſe certificate ſhall be ſo detained and refuſed to be delivered up, of ſuch detainer and refuſal, to any juſtice of the peace reſiding near the place, it ſhall be lawful for ſuch juſtice, by warrant under his hand and ſeal, to cauſe ſuch maſter to be brought before him, to be examined; and if it ſhall appear that the ſame is not loſt or miſlaid, but is wilfully and maliciouſly detained, the maſter ſhall forfeit 100*l.* and on failure of payment in two days, be committed to the common gaol, not leſs than ſix months nor more than twelve. And the juſtice may iſſue a warrant to ſearch for ſuch certificate, and if found, to reſtore it to the owner, and if not found, the juſtice ſhall certify the detainer, refuſal, and conviction, to the perſons who granted the laſt certificate of regiſtry, who ſhall, on the terms and conditions of the acts being complied with, make regiſtry of ſuch veſſel *de novo*, and grant a certificate conformably to the directions of the acts, notifying on the back the ground upon which the veſſel was ſo regiſtered *de novo*."

By a ſubſequent ſtatute, it is enacted, "That in caſe the maſter of any ſhip who ſhall have received her certificate of regiſtry (whether he ſhall be a part owner or not) ſhall wilfully detain and refuſe to deliver it up to the proper officers empowered to make regiſtry, and grant certificates on requiſition from the owners, they may make complaint on oath againſt ſuch maſter to any juſtice of the peace reſiding near the place, or to any member of the ſupreme court of juſtice, or any juſtice of the peace in the colonies; and ſuch juſtice or other magiſtrate ſhall, by warrant under his hand and ſeal, cauſe ſuch maſter to be brought before him, to be examined; and if it ſhall appear that the ſaid certificate is not loſt or miſlaid, but is wilfully detained; the maſter ſhall forfeit 100 *l.* and on failure of payment be committed to gaol not leſs than ſix months nor more than twelve." This ſtatute does not authorize the magiſtrate to grant a ſearch warrant, but it requires the detainer to be certified, and a new certificate of regiſtry granted, in the ſame words as the preceding ſtatute.

SALE OF SHIPS. Theſe ſeveral regulations are applicable to Britiſh ſhips, while they remain the property of the original

owners. Other provifions are made by the ſtatutes to regulate the transfer of the property wholly, or in part, from one perſon to another; and no transfer can be valid without a compliance with them. In the firſt place, the firſt of the ſtatutes now under conſideration enacts, that when the property of any veſſel ſhall be transferred from one to another of his Majeſty's ſubjects, the certificate of the regiſtry ſhall be truly and accurately recited, in words at length, in the bill or other inſtrument of ſale, which ſhall otherwiſe be void. A ſubſequent ſtatute reciting, that upon this clauſe doubts had ariſen, whether *every* transfer of property was required to be made by an inſtrument in writing; and, whether contracts or agreements for the tranſfer might not be made *without* ſuch an inſtrument, enacts, that no transfer, contract, or agreement for transfer, of property, in any veſſel, made after the 1ſt January 1795, ſhall be valid or effectual, unleſs made by bill of ſale, or inſtrument in writing, containing ſuch recital as preſcribed by that clauſe.

But this is not the only requiſite to a transfer of property. Further requiſites are introduced by the ſtatutes.

Firſt, When an alteration of property takes place *in the port* to which the ſhip belongs. In this event, the firſt of the recent ſtatutes, referring to the ſtatute 7 and 8 William, c. 22, which requires, "That in caſe there be any alteration of property in the ſame port, by the ſale of one or more ſhares in any ſhip, after regiſtering thereof, ſuch ſale ſhall always be acknowledged by *indorſement* on the certificate of the regiſter before two witneſſes, in order to prove that the entire property in ſuch ſhip remains to ſome of the ſubjects of England, if any diſpute ariſes concerning the ſame;" further directs, "That in every ſuch caſe, beſides the indorſement required by the ſaid act, there ſhall be indorſed, before two witneſſes, the town, place, or pariſh, where every perſon to whom the property in any ſhip or veſſel, or any part thereof, ſhall be ſo transferred, ſhall reſide; or if ſuch perſons uſually reſide in any country, not under the dominion of his Majeſty, but in ſome Britiſh factory, the name of ſuch factory; or if ſuch perſons reſide in any foreign town or city, and are not members of ſome Britiſh factory, the name of ſuch foreign town or city, and alſo the names of the houſe or copartnerſhip in Great Britain or Ireland, for or with whom ſuch perſons are agents or partners; and the perſons to whom the property of ſuch veſſel ſhall be ſo transferred, or their agent, ſhall alſo deliver a copy of ſuch indorſement to the perſons authorized to make regiſtry and grant certificates, who are to cauſe an entry thereof to be indorſed on the oath or affidavit upon which the original certificate was obtained; and alſo make a memorandum of the ſame in a book of regiſters,

ſters, and forthwith give notice thereof to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England or Scotland, under whom they reſpectively act."

Secondly, When an alteration takes place during the abſence of the ſhip from the port to which ſhe belongs. In this caſe, the 34 Geo. III. c. 68. provides, "That if any ſhip or veſſel be at ſea, or abſent from the port to which ſhe belongs at the time when an alteration in the property is made, ſo that an indorſement or certificate cannot be immediately made, the ſale, or contract for ſale, ſhall notwithſtanding be made by bill of ſale, or other inſtrument in writing, as before directed, and a copy of the inſtrument delivered, and an entry indorſed on the oath or affidavit, and a memorandum made in the book of regiſters, and notice given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms, as before directed; and within ten days after the veſſel ſhall return to the port to which ſhe belongs, an indorſement ſhall be made and ſigned by the owners, and a copy delivered in manner before mentioned, otherwiſe ſuch bill of ſale, or contract, ſhall be void; and entry ſhall be indorſed, and a memorandum made, in manner before directed." And as in caſe of the owner's reſidence out of the king's dominions, it would be impoſſible to comply with ſeveral of the requiſites before mentioned, it is provided, "That in all caſes, where the owner of any ſhip ſhall reſide in any country not under the dominion of his Majeſty, as member of ſome Britiſh factory, or agent or partner in any houſe, carrying on trade in Great Britain or Ireland, at the time when he ſhall transfer ſuch property in any ſhip, ſo that an indorſement cannot be made immediately, nor a copy of the bill of ſale, or inſtrument, be delivered, nor an entry indorſed on the oath or affidavit, nor a memorandum made in the book of regiſters, nor notice given to the commiſſioners of the cuſtoms as before mentioned, the ſame may be done at any time within ſix months after ſuch transfer, and within ten days after ſuch owner, or ſome perſons legally authorized for that purpoſe, ſhall arrive in this kingdom, if the ſhip is then in any port of this kingdom, and if not, then within ten days after its arrival, an indorſement ſhall be made by the owner, or ſome perſon legally authorized, and a copy delivered as before mentioned, otherwiſe the bill of ſale, or contract, ſhall be void; and entry thereof ſhall be indorſed, and a memorandum made, as before directed."

In all caſes, however, when a ſhip is required to be regiſtered anew, upon any transfer of the property wholly or in part, the regiſtering officers are authorized and directed to require the bill or other inſtrument to be produced; and, if it is not produced, they are not to regiſter the ſhip anew, but four of the commiſſioners of cuſtoms in England, or three in Scotland, or the

commander in chief in Guernſey, Jerſey, and the foreign territories, may, if application is made to them, upon due conſideration of the particular circumſtances of the caſe, give direction for regiſtering the ſhip anew, and granting a certificate, notwithſtanding the bill or other inſtrument of ſale ſhall not have been produced, if all other regulations are complied with.

Under this head of transfer of property, it ſeems fit to notice the proviſions made by the legiſlature to prevent ſuch transfer from being made to a foreigner. A transfer of any ſhare to a foreigner would deprive the ſhip of its privileges, and, conſequently, greatly prejudice the other owners; and to prevent this evil, it was enacted by 13 Geo. III., "That no foreigner, or other perſon, not being a natural born ſubject of his Majeſty, ſhall be entitled to, or ſhall purchaſe, or contract for, any part or ſhare of any Britiſh veſſel, belonging only to natural born ſubjects, without the conſent in writing of the owners of three-fourths in value, at leaſt, of ſuch veſſel, indorſed on the certificate of the regiſter before two witneſſes; and all agreements, contracts, purchaſes, and ſales of any ſhare of any Britiſh ſhip, made or concluded by any ſuch foreigner, without ſuch conſent, and not indorſed as aforeſaid, ſhall be abſolutely null and void." The 34 Geo. III. c. 68. alſo declares, That whereas Britiſh ſhips, the property of which is in whole or in part transferred to perſons not being ſubjects of his Majeſty, are not entitled to the privileges of Britiſh ſhips, and to prevent frauds in the employment of ſuch ſhips as Britiſh; they are now by law required, in certain caſes, to be regiſtered *de novo*; for which purpoſe, it is neceſſary that ſuch ſhips ſhould proceed, with all due diligence, to the port to which they belong, or to any other port in which they may be legally regiſtered, in order to be regiſtered *de novo*. It is enacted, That from the 1ſt of March 1795, as often as any ſuch transfer of property in any ſhip ſhall be made, while upon the ſea, in caſe the maſter is privy to ſuch transfer, or in caſe he is not ſo privy, as ſoon as he ſhall be acquainted therewith, ſuch veſſel ſhall proceed directly to the port for which the cargo then on board is deſtined, and ſhall ſail from thence to the port of his Majeſty's dominions to which ſhe belongs, or to any other ſuch port in which ſhe may be legally regiſtered by virtue of the ſaid act; and ſuch ſhip may take on board in the port for which her original cargo was deſtined, or in any other port being in the courſe of her voyage to the port in which ſhe may be ſo regiſtered *de novo*, ſuch cargo, and no other, as ſhall be deſtined, and may legally be carried to ſuch port of his Majeſty's dominions, where ſhe may be ſo regiſtered *de novo*. And, if ſuch transfer of property ſhall be made, while the veſſel is in any foreign port, and the maſter is privy, or if not, as ſoon as he ſhall become acquainted therewith, ſuch veſſel,

veſſel, after having delivered the cargo then on board at the port for which it is deſtined, ſhall ſail to the port of his Majeſty's dominions to which ſhe belongs, or any other port, in which ſhe may be legally regiſtered, and may take on board a proper cargo to be diſcharged at the port of his Majeſty's dominions, in which ſhe may be ſo regiſtered *de novo*. And, if ſuch transfer of property is made while the ſhip is on a fiſhing voyage, and the maſter is privy to ſuch transfer, or, if not, as ſoon as he ſhall become acquainted, the veſſel, after having finiſhed her fiſhing voyage, without touching at any foreign port, except for repairs or refreſhments, or delivery of the cargo, ſhall ſail to the port of his Majeſty's dominions to which ſhe belongs, or where ſhe may be legally regiſtered, and take on board ſuch cargo as may be legally carried, and be regiſtered *de novo*; but, on failure, the ſhip or veſſel ſhall, to all intents and purpoſes, be conſidered foreign, and not again regiſtered, and entitled to Britiſh privileges, unleſs upon ſpecial repreſentation to four or more commiſſioners of the cuſtoms in England, or three in Scotland, or proper perſons abroad, who may order the ſhip to be regiſtered, and again entitled to the privileges of a Britiſh ſhip, and a certificate ſhall be granted accordingly. But ſuch ſhips muſt comply with all the regulations required by law concerning the firſt regiſtry; and no ſhip, of which the property is ſo transferred, ſhall be regiſtered *de novo*, unleſs ſhe return to a proper Britiſh port within twelve months after the transfer; unleſs on a voyage to the eaſt, or the Cape of Good Hope, or to the weſt of Cape Horn, and then within two years, except caſes of ſpecial repreſentation.

SHARES. The ſeveral part-owners of a ſhip are tenants in common with each other of their reſpective ſhares: each has a diſtinct, although undivided, intereſt in the whole; and, upon the death of any one, his ſhare goes to his own perſonal repreſentatives, and does not accrue to the others by ſurvivorſhip. A perſonal chattel, veſted in ſeveral diſtinct proprietors, cannot poſſibly be enjoyed advantageouſly by all, without a common conſent and agreement among them: to regulate their enjoyment, in caſe of diſagreement, is one of the hardeſt taſks of legiſlation: and it is not without wiſdom, that the law of England, in general, declines to interfere in their diſputes, leaving it to themſelves, either to enjoy their common property by agreement, or to ſuffer it to remain unenjoyed, or periſh by their diſſenſion, as the beſt method of forcing them to a common conſent for their common benefit. The law of this country, while it authorizes the majority in value to employ the ſhip "upon any probable deſign," takes care to ſecure the intereſt of the diſſentient minority from being loſt in the employment, of which they diſapprove. And for this purpoſe, it

has been the practice of the Court of Admiralty, from very remote times, to take a ſtipulation from thoſe, who deſire to ſend the ſhip on a voyage, in a ſum equal to the value of the ſhares of thoſe who diſapprove of the adventure, either to bring back and reſtore to them the ſhip, within a limited time, or to pay them the value of their ſhares. When this is done, the diſſentient part-owners bear no portion of the expenſes of the outfit, and are not intitled to a ſhare in the profits of the undertaking; but the ſhip ſails wholly at the charge and riſk, and for the profit of the others. This ſecurity may be taken upon a warrant obtained by the minority to arreſt the ſhip; and it is incumbent on the minority to have recourſe to ſuch proceedings, as the beſt means of protecting their intereſt; or, if they forbear to do ſo, at all events they ſhould expreſsly notify their diſſent to the others, and, if poſſible, to the merchants alſo, who freight the ſhip. With regard to the *repairs* of a ſhip, and other neceſſaries for the employment of it, one part-owner may, in general, by ordering theſe things on credit, render his companions liable to be ſued for the price of them. Yet, if the perſon who gives the credit on ſuch an occaſion does not at the time know that there are other part-owners, he may ſue him alone, from whom he receives the orders. But one part-owner cannot, by ordering an inſurance of the ſhip, without authority from another, charge the other with any part of the premium, unleſs the other afterward aſſent to the inſurance. The intereſt of part-owners in a ſhip, and in the profits and loſs of an adventure undertaken by their mutual conſent, is not affected by the bankruptcy of one of them taking place after the commencement of the voyage, although he has not paid his full ſhare of the outfit. In ſuch a caſe, if the other part-owners have, in that character, paid the expenſe of the outfit, or made themſelves reſponſible for it, they will have a right to deduct his ſhare from the portion of his profits to be paid to his aſſignees.

MASTER. The maſter is the perſon entruſted with the care and management of the ſhip. His power and authority are ſo great, and the truſt repoſed in him is of ſo important a nature, that the greateſt care and circumſpection ought to be uſed by the owners in the choice and appointment. It appears by the language of the antient ſea-laws and ordinances, that the maſter was formerly in almoſt every inſtance a part owner of the ſhip, and, conſequently intereſted, in a two-fold character, in the faithful diſcharge of his duty. At preſent, it frequently happens that he has no property in the ſhip. The law of ſome countries requires a previous examination of the perſon to be appointed to this important office, in order to aſcertain his nautical experience and ſkill: in other countries he is liable to be puniſhed

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as a criminal, if, having undertaken the charge, he is found incompetent to the performance of it. In this country the owners are, except in one caſe, which relates to the ſlave trade, left to their own diſcretion, as to the ſkill and honeſty of the maſter; and, although he is bound to make good any damage that may happen to the ſhip or cargo, by his negligence or unſkilfulneſs, if he is of ability to do ſo, yet he cannot be puniſhed as a criminal for mere incompetence. The regulation in the navigation act requiring the maſter and a certain portion of the crew to be Britiſh ſubjects, has already been noticed; by ſome late ſtatutes, theſe reſtrictions have been, in ſome degree, varied, and the 34 Geo. III. c. 68. enacts, that if any goods ſhall be imported or brought, exported or carried coaſtwiſe, contrary to any of the proviſions of this act, the goods, veſſel, guns, and furniture ſhall be forfeited: and if any veſſel ſhall ſail in ballaſt, or ſail to be employed in fiſhing on the coaſt, in the manner before-mentioned, or being required to be manned and navigated with a maſter, and a certain proportion of Britiſh mariners, as before directed, ſhall not be manned and navigated according to the proviſions of this act, the veſſel, with her guns and furniture, and all the goods on board, ſhall be forfeited. And all goods and veſſels ſo forfeited may be ſeized by the commander of any ſhip of war, or any commiſſioned, warrant, or petty officer, ſpecially appointed by him, or any officer of the cuſtoms: the forfeiture to be recovered and applied in the ſame manner as any forfeiture incurred by any law reſpecting the revenue of the cuſtoms. Proviſion is, however, made for caſes where foreign ſailors are in greater proportion than is allowed, owing to death, deſertion, and other cauſes.

Contracts. A trading ſhip is employed by virtue of two diſtinct ſpecies of contract. Firſt, the contract by which an entire ſhip, or, at leaſt, the principal part, is let for a determinate voyage to one or more places: this is uſually done by a written inſtrument, ſigned and ſealed, and called a *Charter-party*. Secondly, the contract by which the maſter or owners of a ſhip deſtined on a particular voyage, engage ſeparately with a number of perſons unconnected with each other, to convey their reſpective goods to the place of the ſhip's deſtination. A ſhip employed in this manner is uſually called a *general* ſhip. The owners rarely navigate a trading ſhip by themſelves; the conduct and management of it are almoſt always intruſted to the maſter, whether he has, or has not, a partial property in it. In the latter caſe, he is the confidential ſervant, or agent, of the owners at large; in the former, of his co-partners. In either caſe, by the law of England, and, in conformity to the rules and maxims of that law in analogous caſes, the owners

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are bound to the performance of every lawful contract made by him relative to the uſual employment of the ſhip. They are bound to this performance, by reaſon of their employment of the ſhip, and of the profit derived by them from that employment. One part-owner, who diſſents from a particular voyage in the manner before-mentioned, is not bound, becauſe he does not employ the ſhip on that voyage, nor derive any profit from it. The courſe of the uſual employment of the ſhip is evidence of authority given by the owners to the maſter, to make for them and on their behalf a contract relating to ſuch employment; and, conſequently, a contract ſo made by him is eſteemed in law to have been made by them. It is true, that the maſter alſo is anſwerable for his own contract; for, in favour of commerce, the law will not compel the merchant to ſeek after the owners and ſue them, although it gives him the power to do ſo; but leaves him a two-fold remedy againſt the one or the other. The great reſponſibility, which the laws of commercial nations caſt upon the owners for the acts of the maſter, in this and other caſes, has appeared to many perſons, at firſt view, to be a great hardſhip; but, laying aſide all conſideration of the opportunities of fraud and colluſion, which would otherwiſe be afforded, it ſhould always be remembered, that the maſter is elected, and appointed by the owners; and by their appointment of him to a place of truſt and confidence, they hold him forth to the public as a perſon worthy of truſt and confidence; and if the merchants, whom he deceives, could not have redreſs againſt thoſe who appointed him; they would often have juſt reaſon to complain, that they had ſuſtained an irreparable injury through the negligence or miſtake of the owners; as the maſter is ſeldom of ability to make good the loſs of any conſiderable amount.

Repairs and Supplies. The obligation, to which the maſter of a ſhip may ſubject the owners, to pay the charge of repairing their ſhip, and the price of ſtores and proviſions ſupplied for the uſe of it, or to repay money advanced for thoſe purpoſes, is ſometimes direct, furniſhing an action againſt themſelves perſonally; ſometimes indirect, to be proſecuted by a ſuit againſt the ſhip. It ſhould be premiſed, however, that the maſter is always perſonally bound by a contract of this kind made by himſelf, unleſs he takes care by expreſs terms to confine the credit to his owners only. But ſuch a contract made by the owners themſelves, or under circumſtances which ſhew that credit was given to them alone, gives the creditor no right of action againſt the maſter. In order, however, to conſtitute a demand againſt the owners, it is neceſſary that the ſupplies furniſhed by the maſter's order ſhould be reaſonably fit and proper for the occaſion,

occaſion, or that money advanced to him for the purchaſe of them ſhould at the time appear to be wanting for that purpoſe. The contrary in either caſe would furniſh a ſtrong preſumption of fraud and colluſion on the part of the creditor. Alſo if the maſter expend money of his own for theſe purpoſes, he has a right to call upon the owners to repay him. By the law of ſeveral foreign countries, they who repair or fit out a ſhip, or lend money to be employed in thoſe ſervices, have an abſolute hold on the property of the veſſel itſelf; but it is not clear that by the law of England any ſuch hold exiſts, unleſs where the ſhip is already in the poſſeſſion of the claimant.

HYPOTHECATION. A maſter may in foreign parts hypothecate the ſhip. It ſhould be obſerved that wherever he may pledge the ſhip, he may pledge the freight alſo. The contracts by which this is effected are uſually called contracts by *bottomry*, the bottom or keel of the ſhip being figuratively uſed to expreſs the whole body; ſometimes alſo, but inaccurately, money lent in this manner is ſaid to run at *reſpondentia*, for that word properly applies to the loan of money upon merchandize laden on board a ſhip, the repayment of which is made to depend upon the ſafe arrival of the merchandize at the deſtined port. In like manner the repayment of money lent on bottomry does, in general, depend on the proſperous concluſion of the voyage; and as the lender ſuſtains the hazard of the voyage, he receives, on its happy termination, a greater price or premium for his money, than the rate of intereſt allowed by law in ordinary caſes. The premium paid on theſe occaſions depends wholly on the contract of the parties, and conſequently varies according to the nature of the adventure. And as the maſter of the ſhip may, under certain circumſtances, pledge the ſhip by a bottomry contract, ſo alſo may the owners or part-owners in any caſe, to the extent of their reſpective intereſts: and this they not unfrequently do, in order to raiſe money for the outfit, when prudence dictates the propriety of ſuch a meaſure, or the want of perſonal credit compels them to have recourſe to it. The origin of theſe contracts is certainly very remote, and cannot now be accurately aſcertained. The name of *bottomry* has been ſometimes incorrectly applied to a contract, by the terms of which the ſhip itſelf is not pledged as a ſecurity, but the repayment of money with a high premium for the riſk, is made to depend upon the ſucceſs of a voyage. This is rather a loan upon a particular adventure to be made by a particular ſhip, than a loan upon the ſhip; and of courſe the lender has only the perſonal ſecurity of the borrower for the due performance of the contract. And it ſeems that loans have ſometimes been made in this manner, and probably alſo with a pledge of the ſhip itſelf, to an amount

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exceeding the value of the borrower's intereſt in the ſhip, and ſuch a contract is ſtill legal in this country in all caſes, except the caſe of ſhips belonging to the king's ſubjects bound to or from the Eaſt Indies. With regard, however, to contracts of this ſort made by the owners themſelves in this country, by the terms of which the ſhip is pledged as a ſecurity, it ſhould be obſerved that the lender has not the ſame convenient and advantageous remedy by ſuit in the admiralty againſt the ſhip, as he has in the caſe of hypothecation for neceſſaries by the maſter in a foreign port; and if the contract relate to a Britiſh ſhip, and purport to be, either a preſent aſſignment of the ſhip, liable to be defeated on repayment of the money due at the end of the voyage, or a future aſſignment to take effect only upon failure of ſuch payment, it ſeems that a compliance with the proviſions of the regiſter acts, mentioned before with regard to the transfer of property in ſhips, is eſſential to the validity of the contract. Neither does there ſeem any mode, by which a perſon, who advances money at *reſpondentia*, upon goods laden and to be laden on board a ſhip on an outward and homeward voyage, can reſort for the payment of his debt to the ſpecific goods that may be brought back. A contract of hypothecation made by the maſter does not transfer the property of the ſhip, but only gives the creditor a privilege or claim upon it, to be carried into effect by legal proceſs. It is obvious that a loan of money upon bottomry, while it relieves the owner from many of the perils of a maritime adventure, deprives him alſo of a great part of the profits of a ſucceſsful voyage: and therefore in the place of the owner's reſidence, where they may exerciſe their own judgment upon the propriety of borrowing money in this manner, the maſter of the ſhip is, by the maritime law of all ſtates, precluded from doing it, ſo as to bind the intereſt of his owners, without their conſent.

Duties of the Master. The great truſt repoſed in the maſter by the owners, and the great authority which the law has veſted in him, require on his part, and for his own ſake, no leſs than for the intereſt of his employers, the utmoſt fidelity and attention. For if any injury or loſs happen to the ſhip or cargo by reaſon of his negligence or miſconduct, he is perſonally reſponſible for it; and although the merchant may elect to ſue the owners, *they* will have a remedy againſt him to make good the damages, which they may be compelled to pay. So, if he make any particular engagement or warranty without a ſufficient authority from his owners, although the owners may be anſwerable to the perſons with whom he contracts, by reaſon of the general power belonging to his ſituation and character, he is in like manner reſponſible to the owners for the injuries

juries ſuſtained by them in conſequence of his acting beyond, or in violation of, the particular authority given to him.

It is impoſſible to frame any ſet of general rules competent to inforce the performance of all the civil obligations of a perſon of this deſcription, and the legiſlature of this country has very prudently declined the attempt. With reſpect however to the mariners, whoſe duty is much more ſimple, the legiſlature has introduced a few very important rules, which were at firſt confined to ſhips ſailing from this country to ports beyond the ſeas; and afterwards extended to the Britiſh colonies in America. Similar proviſions have been ſince made with reſpect to veſſels of the burden of one hundred tons and upward, employed in the coaſting-trade, and going to open ſea.

MARINERS. By theſe rules, the contract for ſervice muſt be made by the maſter, by a written agreement ſigned by him and the mariners. If, after entering into ſuch agreement, a mariner deſerts, or refuſes to proceed on the voyage, he forfeits to the owners all the wages then due to him, and a juſtice of the peace may, on complaint of the maſter, owner, or perſon having charge of the ſhip, iſſue a warrant to apprehend him, and in caſe he refuſes to proceed on the voyage, and does not aſſign a ſufficient reaſon for his refuſal, may commit him to hard labour in the houſe of correction, for not more than thirty, nor leſs than fourteen days. If he abſents himſelf from the ſhip without the leave of his maſter, or other chief officer having the charge of the ſhip, he forfeits two days pay for every ſuch day's abſence, to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital. And in the caſe of foreign voyages, if, upon the ſhip's arrival at her port of delivery here, he leaves it without a written diſcharge from the maſter, or other perſon having the charge of the ſhip; or if in the coaſting trade, he quits the ſhip before the voyage is completed and the cargo delivered, or before the expiration of the term for which he engaged, or before he has ſuch a diſcharge in writing, he forfeits one month's pay to the ſame uſe. But theſe proviſions do not extend to debar any ſeaman from entering to ſerve his Majeſty on board any of his ſhips.

By the common law, the maſter has an authority over all the mariners on board the ſhip, and it is their duty to obey his commands in all lawful matters relating to the navigation of the veſſel, and the preſervation of good order: and ſuch obedience they expreſsly promiſe to yield to him by the agreement uſually made for their ſervice. In caſe of diſobedience or diſorderly conduct, he may lawfully correct them in a reaſonable manner; his authority in this reſpect being analogous to that of a parent over his child, or of a maſter over his apprentice or ſcholar.

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Such an authority is abſolutely neceſſary to the ſafety of the ſhip, and the lives of the perſons on board; but it behoves the maſter to be very careful in the exerciſe of it, and not make his parental power a pretext for cruelty and oppreſſion. The maſter ſhould, except in caſes requiring his immediate interpoſition, take the advice of the perſons below him in authority, as well to prevent the operation of paſſion in his own breaſt, as to ſecure witneſſes to the propriety of his conduct; for the maſter, on his return to this country, may be called upon by action at law, to anſwer a mariner, who has been beaten or impriſoned by him, or his order, in the courſe of a voyage; and for the juſtification of his conduct, he ſhould be able to ſhow, not only that there was a ſufficient cauſe for chaſtiſement, but alſo that the chaſtiſement itſelf was reaſonable and moderate, otherwiſe the mariner may recover damages proportionate to the injury received. And if the maſter ſtrike a mariner without cauſe, or uſe a deadly weapon as an inſtrument of correction where moderate correction may be inflicted, and death enſue, he will be guilty either of manſlaughter or murder, according to the rules and diſtinctions of the criminal law of England in analogous caſes, which are all applicable to perſons in this ſituation; and by the late extenſion of the juriſdiction of the commiſſioners appointed for the trial of crimes committed at ſea, all offences there may now be tried before them, and puniſhed as if committed on ſhore: in the caſe of actual and open mutiny by the crew or any part of them, the reſiſtance of the maſter becomes an act of ſelf-defence, and is to be conſidered, in all its conſequences, in that point of view.

But although the maſter may by force reſtrain the commiſſion of great crimes, he has no judicial authority to puniſh the criminal, but ought to ſecure his perſon, and cauſe him to be brought before a proper tribunal of his country. By a late ſtatute, 39 Geo. III. c. 80. all juſtices of the peace are empowered to receive information touching any murder, piracy, felony, or robbery upon the ſea, and to commit the offenders for trial.

In general alſo, the maſter may, for miſbehaviour, diſcharge a mariner from his ſervice in the ſhip; but in the African ſlave trade, the maſter of a Britiſh ſhip is forbidden to do this, on any pretence whatever, unleſs he turns him over to one of his Majeſty's ſhips of war, or to aſſiſt a ſhip in actual diſtreſs. And in this trade, if any officer, mariner, or ſeaman, ſhall behave in a riotous, ſeditious, or mutinous manner, the maſter may put him into confinement, but muſt within twenty-four hours report to the commander of any of his Majeſty's ſhips preſent, or within a convenient diſtance, who is authorized to

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inquire and examine upon oath, into the cauſe of complaint, and grant ſuch remedy as the caſe may require: if no ſuch ſhip is preſent, the cauſe of complaint may be examined by the maſter and two officers, in the preſence of the ſhip's company; and if it ſhall be judged neceſſary for the ſafety of the ſhip and cargo, to continue the offender in confinement, ſuch determination ſhall be drawn up in writing, and the reaſons of the reſolutions ſtated at large, and ſigned by the maſter and two officers, which they are to report without delay to the commander of the firſt of his Majeſty's ſhips they may fall in with, and, in default thereof, to the governor or chief officer of any Britiſh fort in Africa, or the governor of any of the Weſt India Iſlands, on arrival at any port or road therein, that proper meaſures may be taken to bring the offender to juſtice.

Barratry. The term barratry, which is often uſed as well by foreign writers as thoſe of our own nation, is generally underſtood in this, and in moſt other countries, to denote a fraudulent act of the maſter or mariners, committed to the prejudice of the owners of the ſhip. In France it is often uſed in a more enlarged ſenſe, and comprehends acts of mere ignorance or unſkilfulneſs, not accompanied with a fraudulent deſign. This word, taken even in the moſt limited ſenſe, in which it is uſed in this country, does not denominate any ſpecies of crime puniſhable by law; but ſeveral offences committed by the maſter and mariners, in violation of their truſt and duty, and which fall within the definition of barratry, are puniſhable by different ſtatutes.

Other Offences. The offence of wilfully deſtroying the ſhip is puniſhable with death; thoſe of running away with the ſhip or cargo, and of making a revolt, in the ſame manner. As to the offence of not reſiſting pirates and enemies, it appears formerly to have been a practice with the Turkiſh pirates to reſtore a ſhip, and the goods of the maſter and mariners, and ſometimes even to pay the whole, or a part, of the freight, if the ſhip yielded to them, and they were ſuffered to take out the cargo without reſiſtance. To prevent this practice, a ſtatute was paſſed in the reign of Charles II. by which the maſter of any veſſel of a burden not leſs than two hundred tons, and furniſhed with ſixteen guns, is forbidden to yield his cargo to pirates of any force, without reſiſtance, on pain of being incapable to take charge of any Engliſh veſſel afterwards. And if the ſhip is releaſed, and any thing given by the pirates to the maſter, ſuch gift and his ſhare of the ſhip are to go to the owners of the goods. And any ſhip of leſs burden or force than before mentioned is forbidden to yield

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to a Turkiſh pirate, not having double her number of guns, without fighting. The ſtatute alſo inflicts impriſonment and other puniſhments on thoſe who refuſe to fight, and makes the offence of voluntarily yielding to pirates a capital crime. Due means are alſo taken by the ſtatutes for rewarding thoſe who have been wounded, and providing for the relatives of thoſe who have been killed in ſuch actions; and, as already has been mentioned, ſeamen wounded on theſe occaſions have a right in common with thoſe in the royal navy, to the relief afforded by Greenwich hoſpital. And, as a preference is given according to the duration of ſervice, the maſter of each ſhip is obliged to keep a muſter roll of the perſons employed on board, and, before its departure, deliver a duplicate to the collector at the port; and during the voyage enter the time and place of diſcharge, quitting, and deſertion, and of receiving other perſons on board, and of any hurt, damage, death, or drowning, of which he muſt alſo deliver a duplicate at his return under the penalty of 20*l.*: to the truth whereof he may be examined upon oath by the collector. And in caſe any perſon employed on board any ſhip ſhall, in doing his duty on ſhore or on board, break an arm or leg, or be otherwiſe hurt or maimed, he is to be properly relieved until ſufficiently recovered to be ſent to the place to which the ſhip belongs.

By the ancient marine ordinances, if a mariner falls ſick during a voyage, or is hurt in the performance of his duty, he is to be cured at the expenſe of the ſhip, but not if he receives an injury in the purſuit of his own private concerns. If by ſhipwreck, capture, or other unavoidable accident, any ſeafaring men or boys, ſubjects of Great Britain, are caſt away in foreign parts, the governors, miniſters, and conſuls appointed by his Majeſty, or, where none ſuch are reſident, two or more Britiſh merchants there reſiding, are required to provide for and ſubſiſt them, at the rate of ſixpence per day, for which they are to ſend bills with proper vouchers to the commiſſioners of the navy, and to put them on board the firſt ſhip belonging to his Majeſty that arrives there, or within a convenient diſtance; and in caſe no ſuch ſhip ſhall be found, to ſend them on board ſuch merchant ſhips bound for Great Britain as ſhall be in want of men: and if neither caſe happens within a convenient time, to provide them a paſſage homeward in the firſt merchant ſhip bound for Great Britain, of which the maſter is bound to receive not exceeding four perſons for every one hundred tons of his ſhip's burden; and he is to be paid ſixpence per day by the commiſſioners of the navy for ſuch of them as he did not want toward his own complement of men. If a maſter of a merchant ſhip, being abroad, ſhall force any man on ſhore, or wilfully leave him behind in any of his Majeſty's plantations, or elſewhere, or

refuſe to bring home again all ſuch of the men he carried out with him as are in a condition to return, when he ſhall be ready to proceed on his homeward-bound voyage, every ſuch maſter, on conviction, ſhall ſuffer three months impriſonment.

CHARTER-PARTY. The contract by charter-party is one by which an entire ſhip, or ſome principal part, is let to a merchant for the conveyance of goods on a determined voyage. The term charter-party is generally underſtood to be a corruption of the Latin words *charta partita*: the two parts of this and other inſtruments being uſually written, in former times, on one piece of parchment, which was afterwards divided by a ſtraight line cut through ſome word or figure, ſo that one part ſhould fit and tally with the other, as evidence of their original agreement and correſpondence, and to prevent the fraudulent ſubſtitution of a fictitious inſtrument for the real deed of the parties. With the ſame deſign indentation was afterwards introduced; and deeds of more than one part thereby acquired among Engliſh lawyers the name of indentures. This practice of diviſion has however long been diſuſed, and that of indentation is become a mere form. The execution and effect of theſe deeds of charter-party are the ſubject of many legal diſtinctions too nice to be here ſpecified.

DEMURRAGE. Demurrage is an allowance made to the maſter of a ſhip by the merchants, for ſtaying in a port longer than the time firſt appointed for his departure. The word "days" uſed alone in a clauſe of demurrage for unlading in the river Thames, is ſaid to be underſtood of working days only, and not to comprehend Sundays or holidays, by the uſage among merchants in London; but it is much better to mention working or running days expreſsly, according to the intention of the parties. The payment of demurrage, ſtipulated to be made while a ſhip is waiting for convoy, ceaſes as ſoon as the convoy is ready to depart; and ſuch payment, ſtipulated to be made while a ſhip is waiting to receive a cargo, ceaſes, when the ſhip is fully laden, and the neceſſary clearances are obtained, although the ſhip may in either caſe happen to be further detained by adverſe winds, or tempeſtuous weather. And if the ſhip has once ſet ſail and departed, but is afterwards driven into port, the claim of demurrage is not thereby revived.

CONVEYANCE OF MERCHANDIZE. The contract for the conveyance of merchandize in a general ſhip, is that by which the maſters and owners of a ſhip, deſtined on a particular voyage, engage ſeparately with various merchants unconnected with each other, to convey their reſpective goods to the place of the ſhip's deſtination. When a ſhip is in-

tended to be thus employed, it is uſual in London, and other places, to give notice of the intention by printed papers and cards, mentioning the name and deſtination of the ſhip; her burthen, and ſometimes her force; and ſometimes expreſſing alſo that the ſhip is to ſail with convoy, or with the firſt convoy for the voyage, or other matters relating thereto. Such expreſſion is an aſſurance or warranty to the merchant, who lades goods in purſuance of the advertiſement, and becomes a part of the contract with him, although it be not afterwards contained in the bill of lading.

When goods are ſent on board the ſhip, the maſter, or perſon on board acting for him, uſually gives a receipt for them, and the maſter afterwards ſigns and delivers to the merchant ſometimes two, and ſometimes three, parts of a bill of lading, of which the merchant commonly ſends one or two to his agent, factor, or other perſon, to whom the goods are to be delivered at the place of deſtination; that is, one on board the ſhip with the goods, another by the poſt or other conveyance, and one he retains for his own ſecurity. The maſter ſhould take care to have another part for his own uſe.

General Duties of the Master and Owners. In whatever way the contract for the conveyance of merchandize is made, the maſter and owners are bound to the performance of various duties of a general nature. The firſt duty is to provide a veſſel, tight and ſtaunch, and furniſhed with all tackle and apparel neceſſary for the intended voyage. For if the merchant ſuffer loſs or damage by reaſon of any inſufficiency in theſe particulars at the outſet of the voyage, he will be intitled to a recompence. She muſt alſo be adequately manned, and where a pilot is required, one muſt be taken on board.

The manner of receiving goods on board, and the commencement of the maſter's duty in this reſpect, depend on the cuſtom of the particular place. More or leſs is to be done by wharfingers or lightermen, according to the uſage. If the maſter receive goods at the quay or beach, or ſend his boat for them, his reſponſibility commences with the receipt. He muſt provide a ſufficient number of perſons to protect them; for, even if the crew are overpowered by ſuperior force, and the goods ſtolen, while the ſhip is in a port or river within the body of a county, the maſter and owners will be anſwerable for the loſs, although they have been guilty of neither fraud nor fault; the law in this inſtance holding them reſponſible from reaſons of public

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policy, and to prevent the combinations, that might otherwise be made with thieves and robbers.

It is, in all cases, the duty of the master to provide ropes and tackle proper for the actual reception of the goods into the ship; and if a cask be accidentally staved in letting it down into the hold of the ship, the master must answer for the loss. The ship must also be furnished with proper dunnage (pieces of wood placed against the sides and bottom of the hold) to preserve the cargo from the effects of leakage, according to its nature and quality; and care must be taken by the master, (unless by usage or agreement this business is to be performed by persons hired by the merchant), so to stow and arrange the different articles of which the cargo consists, that they may not be injured by each other, or by the motion or leakage of the ship. No more must be taken on board, than the ship can conveniently carry, leaving room for her own furniture, provisions, and for working; nor any contraband goods; nor false or colourable papers, that may subject the ship to capture or detention. The master must procure and keep on board all the papers and documents required for the manifestation and protection of the ship and cargo; and where, by the terms of a charter-party, a number of days are appointed for the lading of the cargo, the master must not sail before the expiration of the time.

All things being thus prepared for the commencement of the voyage, the master must forthwith obtain the necessary clearances, pay the port and other charges, and commence his voyage without delay, as soon as the weather is favourable; but on no account during tempestuous weather. If there has been an undertaking or warranty to sail with convoy, the vessel must repair to the place of rendezvous, and the master must put himself under the protection of the ships of war appointed by government. A warranty that the vessel shall sail with convoy is very common in a policy of insurance, and in that case, if it be not complied with, the insurance becomes absolutely void, and the insurers are not answerable for a loss happening by tempest, or other accident wholly independent of the subject of the warranty, for which they would otherwise be liable. The convoy must be a ship or ships of war, expressly appointed by government, or by the commander in chief on a particular station. The protection of a ship of war accidentally bound on the same voyage, although discharging the office of a convoy, is not a convoy within the meaning of this warranty.

Having commenced his voyage, the master must proceed to the place of destination without delay, and without stopping at

any other intermediate port, or deviating from the ſtraight and ſhorteſt courſe, unleſs ſuch ſtopping or deviation be neceſſary to repair the ſhip from the effects of accident or tempeſt, or to avoid enemies or pirates, by whom he has good reaſon to ſuſpect that he ſhall be attacked if he proceeds in the ordinary track, and whom he has good reaſon to hope that he may eſcape by delay or deviation; or, unleſs the ſhip ſails to the places reſorted to in long voyages for a ſupply of water or proviſions, by common and eſtabliſhed uſage.

When the ſhip has arrived at the place of her deſtination, the maſter muſt take care that ſhe is ſafely moored or anchored, and, without delay, deliver the cargo to the merchant or his conſignees, upon production of the bills of lading, and payment of the freight, and other charges: and if, by the terms of the charter-party, a particular number of days is ſtipulated for the delivery, either generally, or by way of demurrage, he muſt wait the appointed time. Theſe charges are, in ordinary caſes, *primage*, and the uſual *petty average*, as expreſſed in the bill of lading. The cargo is bound to the ſhip, as well as the ſhip to the cargo; and, therefore (unleſs there is a ſtipulation to the contrary), the maſter is not bound abſolutely to part with the poſſeſſion of any of his cargo, until the freight and other charges, due in reſpect of ſuch part, are paid. In England, the practice is to ſend the goods to a wharf, and order the wharfinger not to part with them, till the freight and other charges are paid, if the maſter is doubtful of payment. And, by the law of England, if the maſter once parts with the poſſeſſion out of the hands of himſelf and his agents, he loſes his lien or hold upon the goods, and cannot afterwards reclaim them.

The manner of delivering the goods, and conſequently, the period at which the reſponſibility of the maſter and owners will ceaſe, depend on local cuſtom, and the uſage of particular trades. Thus a hoyman, who brings goods from an out-port into the port of London, is not diſcharged by landing them at the uſual wharf, but is bound to take care and ſend them out by land to the place of conſignment. And, if the conſignee require to have the goods delivered to himſelf, and direct the maſter not to land them on a wharf at London, the maſter muſt obey the requeſt; for the wharfinger has no legal right to inſiſt upon the goods being landed at his wharf, although the veſſel be moored againſt it. But in the caſe of ſhips coming from a foreign country, delivery at a wharf in London diſcharges the maſter. If the conſignee ſend a lighter to fetch the goods, the maſter of the ſhip is obliged, by the cuſtom of the river Thames, to watch them in the lighter, until the lighter is fully laden,

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and until the regular time of its departure from the ſhip is arrived; and he cannot diſcharge himſelf from this obligation, by declaring to the lighterman that he has not hands to guard the lighter, unleſs the conſignee conſent to releaſe him from the performance of it.

General Duties of the Merchant. The general duties of the merchant (thoſe only excepted, which relate to the payment of freight and of groſs average) are compriſed in a very narrow compaſs: the hirer of any thing muſt uſe it in a lawful manner, and according to the purpoſe for which it is let. The merchant muſt lade no prohibited or uncuſtomed goods, by which the ſhip may be ſubjected to detention or forfeiture. In general, even in the caſe of affreightment by charter-party, the command of the ſhip is reſerved to the owners, or the maſter appointed by them, and therefore the merchant has not the power or opportunity of detaining the ſhip beyond the ſtipulated time, or employing it in any other than the ſtipulated ſervice. Where a merchant having taken a ſhip to freight, declines to lade her in purſuance of his agreement; or before the commencement, or during the courſe, of the voyage withdraws his goods from the ſhip; or, having hired a ſhip to go to a diſtant port, and engaged to furniſh a cargo homeward, fails to do ſo, whereby the ſhip is forced to return empty, the law of England leaves the amount of the compenſation to be aſcertained by a jury, who form their eſtimate on a conſideration of all the circumſtances of the caſe, and of the real injury ſuſtained.

Primage. By the bill of lading the maſter undertakes to deliver the goods on payment of freight with primage and average accuſtomed. The word *primage* denotes a ſmall payment to the maſter for his care and trouble, which he is to receive to his own uſe, unleſs he has otherwiſe agreed with his owners. This payment appears to have been of very ancient date, and to be variouſly regulated in different voyages and trades. In the *Guidon* it is called "*la contribution des chauſſes ou pot de vin du maitre.*" It is ſometimes called the maſter's hat money. The word *average* in this place denotes ſeveral petty charges, which are to be borne partly by the ſhip and partly by the cargo, ſuch as the expenſe of towing, beaconage, &c. This and the primage are often commuted for a ſpecific ſum, or a certain per centage upon the freight.

Freight. The contract for the conveyance of merchandize is in its nature an entire contract: and unleſs it be completely performed, by the delivery of the goods at the place of deſtination, the merchant will in general derive no benefit from the time and labour expended in a partial conveyance, and conſe-

quently be ſubject to no payment whatever, although the ſhip may have been hired by the month or week. The caſes in which a partial payment may be claimed, are exceptions to the general rule, founded upon principles of equity and juſtice, as applicable to particular circumſtances. On the other hand, an interruption of the regular courſe of the voyage, happening without the fault of the owner, does not deprive him of his freight, if the ſhip afterwards proceed with the cargo to the place of deſtination, as in the caſe of capture and recapture. In ſuch a caſe however there will be a deduction for ſalvage: and if the ſhip were hired by the week or month, it may be doubted whether the merchant be chargeable for the period of detention. But although the delivery of the goods at the place of deſtination is in general neceſſary to entitle the owner to the freight, yet with reſpect to living animals, which may frequently die during the voyage without any fault or neglect of the perſons belonging to the ſhip, it is ſaid, that if there be no expreſs agreement whether the freight is to be paid for the lading, or for the tranſporting them, freight ſhall be paid as well for the dead as the living; if the agreement be to pay freight for the lading them, their death certainly cannot deprive the owners of the freight; but if the agreement be to pay for freight for *tranſporting* them, then no freight is due for thoſe that die on the voyage. When the goods are ſent in a general ſhip, the amount of the freight is either ſettled by the agreement of the parties, or by the uſage of the trade. In the caſe of the charter-party, if the ſtipulated payment is a groſs ſum for an entire ſhip, or an entire part of a ſhip, for the whole voyage; the groſs ſum will be payable, although the merchant has not fully laden the ſhip; and if a certain ſum is ſtipulated for every ton, or other portion of the ſhip's capacity, for the whole voyage, the payment muſt be according to the number of tons, &c. which the ſhip is proved capable of containing, without regard to the quantity actually put on board by the merchant. On the other hand, if the merchant has ſtipulated to pay a certain ſum per caſk or bale of goods, the payment muſt be, in the firſt place, according to the number of caſks or bales ſhipped and delivered; and if he has further covenanted to furniſh a complete lading, or a ſpecifie number of caſks or bales, and failed to do ſo, he muſt make good the loſs which the owners have ſuſtained by his failure, to be ſettled in caſe of diſagreement, by a jury.

AVERAGE. Average is the general contribution that is to be made by all parties towards a loſs ſuſtained by ſome for the benefit of all. This contribution is ſometimes called by the

name of *general* average, to diſtinguiſh it from *ſpecial* or *particular* average, a very incorrect expreſſion, uſed to denote every kind of partial loſs or damage happening either to the ſhip or cargo, from any cauſe whatever; and ſometimes by the name of groſs average, to diſtinguiſh it from cuſtomary average mentioned in the bill of lading; which latter ſpecies is ſometimes called alſo *petty* average. The principle of this general contribution is derived from the ancient laws of Rhodes, and adopted by all commercial nations, though with many variations in practice. The rule of the Rhodian law is this: "If "goods are thrown overboard in order to lighten a ſhip, the "loſs incurred for the ſake of all, ſhall be made good by the "contribution of all." The goods muſt be thrown overboard; the mind and agency of man muſt be employed: if the goods are forced out of the ſhip by the violence of the waves, or are deſtroyed in the ſhip by lightning or tempeſt, the merchant alone muſt bear the loſs. They muſt be thrown overboard to lighten the ſhip; if they are caſt overboard by the wanton caprice of the crew or the paſſengers, they, or the maſter and owners for them, muſt make good the loſs. The goods muſt be thrown overboard for the ſake of all; not becauſe the ſhip is too heavily laden to proſecute an ordinary courſe through a tranquil ſea, which would be the fault of thoſe who had ſhipped or received the goods; but, becauſe at a moment of diſtreſs and danger, their weight, or their preſence, prevents the extraordinary exertions required for the general ſafety. When the ſhip is in danger of periſhing from the violent agitation of the wind, or from the quantity of water, that may have forced a way into it, or is labouring on a rock, or a ſhallow, upon which it may have been driven by a tempeſt; or when a pirate or an enemy purſues, gains upon and is ready to overtake, no meaſure, that may facilitate the motion and paſſage of the ſhip, can be really injurious to any one, who is intereſted in the welfare of any part of the adventure, and every ſuch meaſure may be beneficial to almoſt all. In ſuch emergencies, therefore, when the mind of the brave is appalled, it is lawful to have recourſe to every mode of preſervation, and to caſt out the goods in order to lighten the ſhip, for the ſake of all. But if the ſhip and the reſidue of the cargo be ſaved from the peril by the voluntary deſtruction or abandonment of part of the goods, equity requires that the ſafety of ſome ſhould not be purchaſed at the expenſe of others, and, therefore, all muſt contribute to the loſs.

And not only may the loſs of goods become the ſubject of general contribution, but alſo, in ſome caſes, the expenſe incurred in relation to them. Thus, if it be neceſſary to unlade

the goods in order to repair the damage done to a ſhip by tempeſt, ſo as to enable it to proſecute and complete the voyage, it ſeems that the expenſe of unlading, warehouſing, and reſhipping the goods, ſhould be ſuſtained by general contribution, becauſe all perſons are intereſted in the execution of the meaſures neceſſary to the completion of the voyage. The rule mentions goods only; but its principle extends alſo to the ſhip, and its equipage and furniture. By the law of moſt of the continental nations of Europe, the injury done by one ſhip to another, or to its cargo, without fault in the perſons belonging to either ſhip, is to be equally borne by the owners of the two veſſels; but, by the law of England, in the caſe of damage happening in this manner, either to ſhip or cargo, by her misfortune, and without fault in any one, the proprietors of the ſhip or cargo injured muſt bear their own loſs. Such a misfortune is conſidered as a peril of the ſea.

SALVAGE. Salvage is the compenſation to be made to other perſons, by whoſe aſſiſtance a ſhip or its lading may be ſaved from impending peril, or recovered after actual loſs. This compenſation at preſent is commonly made by a payment in money, but, in the infancy of commerce, was more frequently made by the delivery of ſome portion of the ſpecific articles ſaved or recovered. In ſome codes, the value to be paid is fixed at a certain portion of the articles ſaved, or of their value, according to their nature and quality, or the circumſtances of the caſe; but the law of England has fixed no poſitive rule or rate of ſalvage, but directs only, as a general principle, that a reaſonable compenſation ſhall be made. The legiſlators of all civilized and commercial ſtates, in modern times, have laboured earneſtly to repreſs, by due ſeverity of puniſhment, the barbarous ſpirit of plundering the helpleſs and diſtreſſed mariner, whoſe ſituation calls for aſſiſtance and relief. And very ſalutary proviſions have been made on this ſubject by the wiſdom of our own parliaments. A perſon, who by his own labour preſerves goods, which the owner, or thoſe intruſted with the care of them, have either abandoned in diſtreſs at ſea, or are unable to protect and ſecure, is entitled, by the common law of England, to retain the poſſeſſion of the goods ſaved, until a proper compenſation is made to him for his trouble. This compenſation, if the parties cannot agree upon it, may, by the ſame law, be aſcertained by a jury in an action brought by the ſalvor againſt the proprietor of the goods: or the proprietor may tender to the ſalvor ſuch ſum of money as he thinks ſufficient, and, upon refuſal to deliver the goods, bring an action againſt the ſalvor; and if the jury think the ſum tendered ſufficient, he will recover his goods or their value, and the coſts of his ſuit. If the ſal-

vage is performed at ſea, the Court of Admiralty has juriſdiction over the ſubject, and will fix the ſum to be paid, and adjuſt the proportions, and take care of the property pending the ſuit; or, if a ſale is neceſſary, direct a ſale to be made, and divide the proceeds between the ſalvors and the proprietors, according to equity and reaſon. A paſſenger is not entitled to make any claim for the ordinary aſſiſtance he may be enabled to afford to the veſſel in diſtreſs; it being the duty, as well as the intereſt, of all perſons on board, of every deſcription, to contribute their aid on ſuch an occaſion.

With reſpect to the ſalvage on recapture, it may be taken as a general propoſition, liable only to one exception, that the ſhips or goods of the ſubjects of this country taken at ſea by an enemy, and afterwards retaken at any indefinite period of time, and whether before or after ſentence of condemnation, are to be reſtored to their original proprietors upon payment of ſalvage to the recaptors. By acts of Geo. I. and II., the rate of ſalvage was fixed at one-eighth in the caſe of recapture by the king's ſhips; but if by private ſhips, whether acting with or without commiſſion, the rate was varied according to the length of time, during which the veſſel might have been in the poſſeſſion of the enemy; if it had not exceeded twenty-four hours, one-eighth; between twenty-four and forty-eight, one-fifth; between forty-eight and ninety-ſix, one-third; and above ninety-ſix, one half. And, in all caſes, if the veſſel recaptured were ſet forth as a veſſel of war, during its poſſeſſion by the enemy, the rate of ſalvage was fixed at one-half. The variation of the rate of ſalvage according to the time of the enemy's poſſeſſion, probably occaſioned many diſputes; and, therefore, in the ſtatutes paſſed in the preſent reign, the rate has been uniformly fixed. In the American war, it was one-eighth, as well in the caſe of private as of king's ſhips: except in the caſe of veſſels ſet forth as ſhips of war, when it was fixed at one-half. At the commencement of the war, in 1793, the rate was one-eighth for the Royal Navy, and one-ſixth for private ſhips; and, in caſe of recapture by the joint operation of his Majeſty's ſhips, and private ſhips, the judge of the court might order ſuch ſalvage as he ſhould deem fit and reaſonable: but ſhips, ſet forth by the enemy as veſſels of war, ſhould wholly belong to the recaptors. By this laſt ſtatute, a ſhip retaken before ſhe has been carried into an enemy's port, may, with the conſent of the recaptors, proſecute her voyage, and they need not proceed to adjudication till ſix months, or the return of the ſhip to the port from which ſhe ſailed: and, by their conſent, the cargo may be unloaded and diſpoſed of, before adjudication: and if the veſſel does not return directly to the port of

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her departure, or the recaptors have had no opportunity to proceed to adjudication within ſix months, on account of the abſence of the veſſel, the Court of Admiralty ſhall, at the inſtance of the recaptors, decree reſtitution to the former owners, paying ſalvage, upon ſuch evidence as ſhall appear reaſonable, the expenſe of ſuch proceedings not to exceed the ſum of fourteen pounds. Similar proviſions were made at the beginning of the war in 1803; and the ſame rate of ſalvage is fixed for his Majeſty's hired armed ſhips, as for the Royal Navy.

HIRING OF SEAMEN. Seamen employed in merchant ſhips are uſually hired at a certain ſum, either by the month or for the voyage. In the fiſhing trade, particularly the whale fiſhery, and in private ſhips of war, the ſeamen uſually ſerve under an engagement to receive a certain portion of the profits of the adventure. An engagement to receive a certain part of the freight, to be earned by a merchant ſhip, which ſeems formerly to have been not unfrequent, is at preſent ſeldom, if ever made. In order to prevent the miſchiefs that frequently aroſe from the want of proper proof of the preciſe terms upon which ſeamen engaged to perform their ſervice in merchant ſhips, it was enacted by 2 Geo. II. c. 36. that it ſhall not be lawful for any maſter or commander of any veſſel, bound to parts beyond the ſeas, to carry any ſeamen, except his apprentices, to ſea from any port or place, where he or they were entered or ſhipped, without firſt coming to an agreement or contract with ſuch ſeamen for their wages; the agreement to be in writing, declaring what wages each ſeaman is to have during the whole voyage, or for ſo long time as he ſhall ſhip himſelf for; and alſo to expreſs the voyage which the ſeaman was ſhipped to perform, under a penalty of 5*l.* for each mariner carried to ſea without ſuch agreement, to be forfeited by the maſter to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital. This agreement is to be ſigned by each mariner within three days after he ſhall have entered himſelf on board the ſhip; and is, when ſigned, concluſive and binding upon all parties. A ſubſequent ſtatute has extended theſe proviſions to all his Majeſty's colonies in America; and by another, a ſimilar agreement in writing is required to be ſigned by the maſter and mariners of veſſels of the burthen of one hundred tons or upwards, employed in the coaſting trade from one port to another in Great Britain and going to open ſea.

With regard to ſhips trading to the Weſt Indies, it was enacted by the 37 Geo. III. c. 73. that every ſeaman deſerting during the voyage either out or home, ſhall, over and above all previous puniſhments and penalties, forfeit all the wages agreed for with the maſter of the ſhip, on board which he ſhall enter immediately after

after ſuch deſertion. And every maſter of any Britiſh merchant ſhip, who ſhall hire or engage any ſeaman, or other perſon who has to his knowledge deſerted from any other ſhip, ſhall forfeit 100*l.* This laſt clauſe is held to extend to all caſes, and not to be confined to the Weſt India trade. The ſtatute alſo provides againſt the hiring of mariners at exorbitant wages. A ſeaman, who has engaged to ſerve on board a ſhip, is bound to exert himſelf to the utmoſt in the ſervice of the ſhip; and therefore a promiſe made by the maſter when a ſhip was in diſtreſs, to pay an extra ſum to a mariner as an inducement to extraordinary exertions on his part, was eſteemed to be wholly void.

Wages. It is obvious that a ſeaman, who has ſerved faithfully during a voyage, is entitled to receive the ſtipulated reward, if no diſaſter has rendered his ſervice uſeleſs or unproductive to his employer. And as a ſeaman is expoſed to the hazard of loſing the reward of his faithful ſervice, during a conſiderable period in certain caſes, ſo on the other hand the law gives him his whole wages, even when he has been unable to render his ſervice, if his inability has proceeded from any hurt received in the performance of his duty, or from natural ſickneſs happening to him in the courſe of the voyage. And if a maſter in violation of his contract diſcharges a ſeaman from the ſhip during a voyage, the ſeaman ſhall be entitled to his full wages up to the proſperous termination of the voyage, deducting, if the caſe require it, ſuch ſum as he may in the mean time have earned in another veſſel.

As to the time of payment, by the articles of agreement annexed to the ſtatute made for preventing the deſertion of ſeamen from ſhips trading to the Weſt Indies, and which are in common uſe for other voyages alſo, it is ſtipulated, that the ſeamen ſhall not demand or be entitled to any part of their wages until the arrival of the ſhip at the intended port of diſcharge, and delivery of her cargo, nor in leſs than twenty days if they are not employed in ſuch delivery. Policy requires that the wages of ſeamen ſhould not be paid to them in foreign countries, as well to prevent deſertion, as to preſerve for the benefit of their families the money that might otherwiſe be ſpent in idleneſs and debauchery.

The time of payment of wages is alſo regulated and enforced by ſtatutes. Thus, as to ſhips engaged in foreign voyages, it is enacted, that upon the arrival of any ſuch ſhip in Great Britain, the maſter ſhall be obliged to pay the ſeamen their wages in thirty days after the ſhip's entry at the cuſtom houſe (except in a caſe of a covenant to the contrary) or at the time the ſeamen ſhall be diſcharged, which ſhall firſt happen, deducting the

the penalties and forfeitures impoſed by the act, under penalty of twenty ſhillings over and above the wages due to each perſon. And in ſhips employed in the coaſting trade, the maſter is to pay the ſeamen their wages, within five days after entry at the cuſtom houſe, or delivery of the cargo, or at the time the ſeamen ſhall be diſcharged, which ſhall firſt happen, unleſs an agreement ſhall have been made to the contrary, deducting, in every caſe, the penalties impoſed by this act, under the like forfeiture of twenty ſhillings. When a ſhip employed in the ſlave trade arrives at her diſcharging port in Great Britain, the officers and ſeamen are continued in full pay and proviſions, until ſhe is cleared inwards, or their accounts are ſettled and paid.

Loss and Forfeiture of Wages. The wages of ſeamen, whether hired by the month or for the voyage, are ſometimes loſt without any fault on their part; and ſometimes forfeited by their miſconduct. In order to ſtimulate the zeal and attention of this claſs of perſons, who are often engaged in very perilous ſervices, the policy of all maritime ſtates has made the payment of their wages to depend upon the ſucceſsful termination of the voyage. If by any diſaſter, ſuch as loſs or capture, the owners loſe their freight, the ſeamen alſo loſe their wages. The payment of wages is diviſible, and if a ſhip has delivered its cargo at one place, the wages are ſo far due, although the ſhip be afterwards taken or ſunk; but if a ſhip ſail to one place in order to take in a cargo there, to be conveyed to another place, and having received the cargo accordingly, be taken before its arrival at the place of delivery, nothing is payable to the ſeamen for navigating the ſhip to the firſt place, becauſe no freight is thereby gained.

Deſertion is held to be a forfeiture of the wages previouſly earned in all maritime ſtates; and 11 and 12 William III. c. 7. confirms it as the law of England. By 2 Geo. II. c. 36. if a ſeaman ſhall deſert, or refuſe to proceed on his voyage after he ſhall have ſigned the contract, he ſhall forfeit to the owners the wages due to him at the time. By the articles of agreement uſually ſigned in theſe caſes, it is ſtipulated that the mariner ſhall not go out of the ſhip on board any other veſſel, or be on ſhore under any pretence whatever, without leave, and that in default he ſhall be liable to the penalties of this act: but this ſtipulation is merely referable to the ſtatute, and does not create a forfeiture of wages in a caſe where the ſtatute has not inflicted it; as in the caſe of leaving the ſhip after her arrival in a port of this country, although before ſhe is moored. This caſe is ſpecifically provided for by another ſection of the ſame ſtatute, which enacts, that in caſe any ſeaman or mariner

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not entering into his Majeſty's ſervice, ſhall leave the ſhip or veſſel to which he belongs, before he ſhall have a diſcharge in writing from the maſter or commander, or other proper perſon, he ſhall forfeit one month's pay to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital. The ſame ſtatute authorizes the maſter to deduct from the wages due to a mariner all the penalties and forfeitures incurred by the act, and to enter them in a book to be kept for that purpoſe to be ſigned by the maſter and two or more principal officers: and it has been held that the maſter cannot make this deduction unleſs the forfeiture has been regularly entered in a book as the ſtatute directs.

With reſpect to ſhips of the burden of one hundred tons and upwards, employed in the coaſting trade and going to open ſea; if a ſeaman, having ſigned the requiſite agreement, neglects or refuſes to proceed on the intended voyage, he forfeits to the owners all the wages due to him at that time; but the forfeiture for deſertion afterwards, and before the voyage or voyages agreed upon, or upon which ſuch ſhip ſhall have proceeded, ſhall be completed, and the cargo of ſuch ſhip delivered, or before the ſeaman ſhall have a diſcharge in writing from the maſter, &c. is only of one month's wages to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital.

In all caſes, a ſeaman, who wilfully abſents himſelf from the ſhip without leave, forfeits to the uſe of Greenwich hoſpital two days' pay for each day's abſence. In the coaſting trade, the ſtatute directs, that if a ſeaman is hired by the voyage, the period of which exceeds one lunar month, one month's pay ſhall be accounted a ſum bearing the ſame proportion to the whole wages, as a lunar month bears to the whole voyage; and two days' pay ſhall be computed in the ſame manner. If the whole voyage does not exceed a month, the forfeiture is of the whole wages: and the like as to the forfeiture of two days' pay, if the voyage does not exceed two days.

The legiſlature has alſo puniſhed with the forfeiture of wages the offence of neglecting or refuſing to aſſiſt the maſter in defending the ſhip againſt the attack of pirates. It ſeems alſo that neglect of duty, diſobedience of orders, habitual drunkenneſs, or any cauſe, which will juſtify a maſter in diſcharging a ſeaman during the voyage, will alſo deprive the ſeaman of his wages.

If the cargo be embezzled or injured by the fraud or negligence of the ſeamen, ſo that the merchant has a right to claim a ſatisfaction from the maſter and owners, they may, by the cuſtom of merchants, deduct the value from the wages of the ſeamen, by whoſe miſconduct the injury has taken place. And the laſt proviſo introduced into the uſual agreement ſigned by the

the ſeamen, is calculated to enforce this rule in the caſe of embezzlement either of the cargo, or of the ſhip's ſtores.

INSURANCE. Inſurance is a contract whereby one party, in conſideration of a ſtipulated ſum, undertakes to indemnify the other againſt certainp erils or riſks to which he is expoſed, or againſt the happening of ſome event. The party who takes upon himſelf the riſk is called the *inſurer*, ſometimes the *underwriter*, from his ſubſcribing his name at the foot of the policy; the party protected by the inſurance is called the inſured; the ſum paid to the inſurer, as the price of the riſk, is called the *premium*; and the written inſtrument, in which the contract is ſet forth and reduced into form, is called a *policy of inſurance*. The utility of this ſpecies of contract in a commercial country is obvious, and has been taken notice of by very diſtinguiſhed writers upon commercial affairs. Inſurances give great ſecurity to the fortunes of private people, and by dividing amongſt many that loſs, which would ruin an individual, make it fall light and eaſy upon the whole ſociety. This ſecurity tends greatly to the advancement of trade and navigation, becauſe the riſk of tranſporting and exporting being diminiſhed, men are more eaſily induced to engage in an extenſive trade, to aſſiſt in important undertakings, and to join in hazardous enterprizes; ſince a failure in the object will not be attended with thoſe dreadful conſequences to them and their families, which muſt be the caſe in a country where inſurances are unknown. The origin of inſurance is involved in obſcurity, but, wherever foreign commerce has been introduced, inſurance muſt have ſoon followed as a neceſſary attendant, it being impoſſible to carry on any very extenſive trade without it, eſpecially in time of war.

POLICIES. The policy is a written inſtrument, by which the contract of inſurance is effected and reduced into form. The term policy of inſurance, or aſſurance, as it is ſometimes called, is derived from the Italian, *polizza di aſſicurazione*, or *di ſicuranza*, or *di ſicurta*, and in that language ſignifies a *note* or *bill of ſecurity*, or indemnity. As the premium, which is the conſideration of the promiſe made by the inſurer, is paid, or ſuppoſed to be paid, at the time the policy is ſubſcribed, the contract contains nothing in nature of a counter-promiſe, to be performed by the inſured. In general, therefore, it contains only the contract on the part of the inſurers, and is ſigned only by them.

Policies, with reference to the *reality of the intereſt* of the inſured, are diſtinguiſhed into *intereſt*, and wager *policies*. With reference to the *amount* of the intereſt, they are diſtinguiſhed into *open* and *valued*.

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An *intereſt policy* is where the inſured has a real, ſubſtantial, aſſignable intereſt in the thing inſured, in which caſe only it is a contract of indemnity.

A *wager policy* is a pretended inſurance, founded on an ideal riſk, where the inſured has no intereſt in the thing inſured, and can therefore ſuſtain no loſs by the happening of any of the misfortunes inſured againſt. Inſurances of this ſort are uſually expreſſed by the words, "*intereſt or no intereſt*," or "*without further proof of intereſt* than the policy," or, "*without benefit of ſalvage to the inſurer.*"

An *open policy* is where the amount of the intereſt of the inſured is not fixed by the policy; but is left to be aſcertained by the inſured, in caſe a loſs ſhould happen.

A valued policy is where a value has been ſet on the ſhip or goods inſured, and that value inſerted in the policy in nature of liquidated damages to ſave the neceſſity of proving it, in caſe of a total loſs: for, by allowing the value to be thus inſerted in the policy, the inſurer agrees that it ſhall be taken as there ſtated. This value is, or ought to be the real value of the ſhip, or the prime coſt of the goods, at the time of effecting the policy.

The eſſentials in the contract of inſurance are: 1*ſt*, the name of the perſon for whom the inſurance is made, his agent or truſtee: 2*d*, the names of the ſhip and maſter: 3*d*, whether they are ſhips, goods, or merchandize, upon which the inſurance is made: 4*th*, the name of the place where the goods are laden, and whither they are bound: 5*th*, the time when the riſk begins, and when it ends: 6*th*, all the various perils and riſks which the inſurer takes upon himſelf: 7*th*, the conſideration or premium, paid for the riſk or hazard run: 8*th*, the month, day, and year, on which the policy is executed: and 9*th*, the ſtamps required by act of parliament.

PARTIES. In this country, all perſons, whether Britiſh ſubjects or aliens, may, in general, be inſured. The principal, if not the only exception to this rule is, the caſe of an alien enemy. It was long a diſputed queſtion, whether in point of policy, the inſurance of the property of the enemies of the ſtate, in time of war, ought to be tolerated, and the queſtion has, more than once, been agitated in parliament. In 1741, a bill was brought into the Houſe of Commons to prohibit the inſurances on the ſhips and effects belonging to the ſubjects of France, then at war with Great Britain. The arguments of Sir John Bernard againſt the policy of ſuch a reſtriction, though anſwered by Sir Robert Walpole and others, by arguments much more cogent and ſatisfactory, ſeem to have had greater effect than they merited; for though the bill was committed,

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it was afterwards dropped. In 1748, however, a bill was again brought in, to prohibit inſuring the ſhips and merchandize of the ſubjects of France, during the war; and, though this was ſtrenuouſly oppoſed by Sir Dudley Ryder and Mr. Murray, then attorney and ſolicitor general, upon what they conſidered to be principles of policy and expediency, yet it paſſed into a law. The 33 Geo. III. c. 27. not only declares ſuch inſurances to be void, but alſo ſubjects the parties concerned in them to three months impriſonment, ſo that, to judge by the opinion of the legiſlature, the policy of ſuch a prohibition ſeems to be now well eſtabliſhed.

Underwriters. Inſurance requires great prudence and circumſpection in the underwriters. They ſhould be expert in analyſing riſks and calculating probabilities; in foreſeeing the dangers of the ſea, and the danger of fraud. They ſhould be able to form a ſound judgment by combining all circumſtances, and comparing them with the rate of premium. To form ſuch a judgment, in many caſes requires great ſagacity, penetration, and experience. But if men poſſeſſing all theſe advantages are ſometimes deceived, what muſt be the ſituation of thoſe who, allured by the deſire of gain, blindly put their ſignatures to every policy that is preſented to them, without conſidering the precipice to which their temerity leads them. A wiſe underwriter will judge for himſelf, and not implicitly follow others who may have ſubſcribed before him, however remakable for ſagacity and prudence.

Assurance Companies. At common law, any man, or company of men, might be inſurers; and individuals, upon their own ſeparate account, have ſtill the ſame right; but, it was ſuppoſed, about the beginning of the eighteenth century, that commerce had ſuffered conſiderably by perſons in inſolvent circumſtances underwriting policies of inſurance; and having received large ſums in premiums, becoming bankrupts, or otherwiſe failing in making good their loſſes. To remedy this, but more, perhaps, to enable government to raiſe a ſum of money by the ſale of a monopoly, it was thought expedient to create two companies for the purpoſe of making marine inſurances, with ſuch funds to anſwer all demands on their policies as might give confidence to ſuch mercantile adventurers as were unwilling to depend on individual underwriters; ſtill, however, leaving to merchants the option of inſuring with ſuch underwriters when they thought proper. To this end, the ſtat. 6 Geo. I. c. 18. authorized the king to grant charters to two diſtinct companies or corporations for the inſurance of ſhips, goods, and merchandizes at ſea, and for lending money on bottomry. They were to be inveſted with all the powers uſually granted

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to corporations, and the privilege of purchaſing lands to the amount of 1000*l.* per annum. Each was to provide a ſufficient capital, and a competent ſtock of ready money, to anſwer all demands on their policies. In purſuance of the powers given by this act, the two propoſed companies, the one called the Royal Exchange Aſſurance, and the other, the London Aſſurance, were eſtabliſhed by royal charter, bearing date the 22d day of June 1720.

But the moſt important privilege granted by this act to theſe companies was the excluſive right of making marine inſurances, and lending money on bottomry, as a company or co-partnerſhip, on a joint capital. For this purpoſe the act (ſect. 12) declares that, during the continuance of theſe corporations reſpectively, all other corporations then in being, or afterwards to be eſtabliſhed, whether ſole or aggregate, and all ſocieties and partnerſhips for inſuring ſhips and merchandizes at ſea, or going to ſea, and for lending money on bottomry, ſhall be reſtrained from granting, ſigning, or underwriting, any policies of inſurance upon any ſhips, goods, or merchandizes, at ſea or going to ſea, and from lending money on bottomry. And that if any corporation, or perſons in partnerſhip, (other than the ſaid two companies,) ſhall preſume to grant, ſign, or underwrite any ſuch policy, or make any ſuch contract of inſurance, every ſuch policy ſhall be *ipſo facto* void; and all ſums, ſo ſigned and underwritten, ſhall be forfeited, one moiety to the king, the other to the informer, who ſhall ſue for the ſame in any of the courts at Weſtminſter. And if any ſuch corporation or partnerſhip, (other than the ſaid two companies reſpectively,) ſhall lend, or agree to lend, any money on bottomry, the bond, or other ſecurity for the ſame, ſhall be void, and ſuch agreement adjudged to be an uſurious contract, and the offenders ſhall ſuffer as in caſes of uſury. Nevertheleſs it is declared, that any private or particular perſon or perſons ſhall be at liberty to underwrite any policies, and engage in any inſurances, upon ſhips, goods, or merchandizes, at ſea, or going to ſea, or may lend money on bottomry; ſo as the ſame be not upon account or riſk of any corporation, company, or partnerſhip. It has been decided that inſurances may be legally made upon a joint capital, provided each ſubſcriber to it be only liable to the amount of his ſubſcription, and not each for the whole.

THINGS WHICH CAN BE INSURED. Inſurances are moſt commonly made on goods and merchandize, ſhips, freight, and bottomry loans. But there are certain articles, which, from motives of public policy, cannot be legally inſured in this country, and others which can only be inſured under particular reſtrictions. They are, 1. Smuggled goods; 2. Prohibited commerce

with the Britiſh colonies; 3. Warlike ſtores ſent to the enemy; 4. Goods bought of the enemy; 5. The wages and effects of the captain and ſailors; 6. Freight; 7. Slaves; and 8. Profit.

THE VOYAGE. The voyage, with reference to the legality of it, is ſometimes confounded with the *traffic* in which the ſhip is engaged; and is frequently ſaid to be illegal, only becauſe the trade is ſo. But a voyage may be perfectly lawful, and yet the tranſport of certain goods on board the ſhip may be prohibited; or the voyage may be illegal, though the tranſport of the goods be lawful. It may be laid down as a general rule that no inſurance can legally be made upon any voyage made contrary to the laws of this kingdom, or to thoſe of its dependencies, or to the law of nations; and it is immaterial whether the inſurer was or was not informed, that the voyage was illegal.

RISKS. Inſurances may be made againſt all the riſks or perils which are incident to ſea voyages, ſubject, however, to certain exceptions, founded in public policy, and the intereſts of humanity, which require, that in certain caſes, men ſhall not be permitted to protect themſelves againſt ſome particular perils by inſurance. Upon principles of natural juſtice, the inſurer can, in no caſe, make himſelf anſwerable for any loſs or damage *proceeding directly from the fault of the inſured*; becauſe no man can bind himſelf to another to be anſwerable for that perſon's own faults. The words of an Engliſh policy, which ſpecify the various riſks againſt which inſurances are uſually made, are theſe: 'Touching the adventures and perils which 'we the aſſurers are contented to bear, and do take upon us in 'this voyage, they are of the ſeas, men of war, fire, enemies, 'pirates, rovers, thieves, jettiſons, letters of mart and counter-'mart, ſurprizals, taking at ſea, arreſts, reſtraints and detain-'ments of all kings, princes, and people, of what nation, con-'dition or quality ſoever; barratry of the maſter and mari-'ners; and of all other perils, loſſes, and misfortunes, that 'have or ſhall come to the hurt, detriment, or damage of the 'ſaid goods, and merchandizes, and ſhip, &c. or any part there-'of, without prejudice to this inſurance.'

EXCEPTIONS BY COMMON MEMORANDUM. By the agreement of the parties, the general words of the policy may be altered or qualified, and any of the riſks may be wholly or in part excluded, and the inſurance may be made only againſt ſome particular riſks, or up to, or beyond certain degrees, or upon particular articles. In England, it is now conſtantly ſtipulated, that upon certain enumerated articles of a quality peculiarly periſhable, the inſurer ſhall not be anſwerable for any partial loſs;

loſs; that, upon certain others, liable to partial injuries, but leſs difficult to be preſerved at ſea, he ſhall only be liable for partial loſſes above *five per cent.*; and that, as to all other goods, and alſo the ſhip and freight, he ſhall only be liable for partial loſſes above *three per cent.* This ſtipulation is made in form of a warranty inſerted at the bottom of all Engliſh policies. In the commom policies, uſed in London by private underwriters, the memorandum runs thus: 'N. B. Corn, fiſh, ſalt, 'fruit, flour, and ſeed, are warranted free from average, unleſs 'general, or the ſhip be ſtranded:—Sugar, tobacco, hemp, 'flax, hides, and ſkins, are warranted free from average, un-'der *five per cent.*; and all other goods, and alſo the ſhip and 'freight, are warranted free from average, under *three per cent.* 'unleſs general, or the ſhip be ſtranded.'

Duration of Risk. To charge the inſurer, it is not enough that a loſs has happened at ſea; it muſt appear to have happened in the courſe of the voyage, and during the continuance of the riſk inſured. Every voyage inſured muſt have a *terminus à quo* and a *terminus ad quem.* When the inſurance is for a limited time, the two extremes of that time are the *termini* of the voyage inſured. When a ſhip is inſured, both outward and homeward, for one entire premium; this, with reference to the inſurance, is conſidered as but one voyage; and the *terminus à quo* is alſo the *terminus ad quem.* In our policies, the words uſually employed to expreſs the commencement and end of the riſk *on goods* are theſe: "Beginning the adventure upon the 'ſaid goods and merchandizes *from the loading thereof aboard the 'ſaid ſhip*, and ſo ſhall continue and endure until the ſaid ſhip 'with the ſaid goods ſhall be arrived at her port of delivery, 'and until the ſame ſhall be diſcharged and ſafely landed.'—So that with us it is plain that the riſk does not commence until the goods are actually on board the ſhip; and therefore the inſurer is not anſwerable for any loſs or damage which may happen to them, while they are on their paſſage to the ſhip. And it may be laid down as a general rule, with certain exceptions, that the riſk on goods continues no longer than they are actually on board the ſhip mentioned in the policy; and that if they be removed from on board that ſhip, and landed, or put on board another ſhip, without the conſent of the inſurers, the contract is at an end, and the inſurers are diſcharged from all ſubſequent reſponſibility. The commencement of the riſk *on the ſhip* varies in almoſt every caſe. In outward bound voyages, it is generally made to commence from her beginning to load at her port of departure. Sometimes privateers on a cruiſe, ſhips engaged in the coaſting trade; or in ſhort voyages, are inſured for a limited period of time, and, in ſuch caſes, the riſk commences and ends with the term, where-

ever the ſhip may happen to be. If a ſhip be inſured *from* the port of London to any other port, and before ſhe breaks ground, an accident happen to her, the inſurers are not anſwerable; for the riſk does not commence till ſhe ſets ſail on her departure from the port of London: but if the inſurance be "*at and from*" the port of London, the inſurers are liable for any accident that may happen to her, *from the time of ſubſcribing the policy*. If, after the inſurance is effected, any thing be done by the inſured to alter the nature of the riſk, this muſt be done with the conſent of the inſurers, otherwiſe it will avoid the contract: as, if, after a policy is effected on a merchant ſhip, letters of marque be put on board, and from a mere private trader ſhe is changed into a ſhip of war, with power not only to defend herſelf, but alſo to cruize and take prizes; this is ſuch an alteration of the condition of the ſhip, that the riſk muſt be materially changed from that which the underwriter took upon himſelf, and conſequently the contract is thereby determined.

WARRANTY. A warranty is a ſtipulation or agreement on the part of the inſured, in nature of a condition precedent. It may be either *affirmative*, as where the inſured undertakes for the truth of ſome poſitive allegation; as, that the thing inſured is neutral property, that the ſhip is of ſuch a force, that ſhe ſailed, or was well, on ſuch a day, &c.: or, it may be *promiſſory*; as, where the inſured undertakes to perform ſome executory ſtipulation, as, that a ſhip ſhall ſail on or before a given day; that he ſhall depart with convoy; that he ſhall be manned with ſuch a complement of men, &c. Warranties are either *expreſs* or *implied*. An expreſs warranty is a particular ſtipulation introduced into the written contract by the agreement of the parties; as, that the thing inſured is neutral property; that the ſhip ſhall ſail by a given day; that ſhe ſhall depart with convoy, &c. An implied warranty is that which neceſſarily reſults from the nature of the contract; as, that the ſhip ſhall be ſea-worthy when ſhe ſails on the voyage inſured; that ſhe ſhall be navigated with reaſonable ſkill and care; that the voyage is lawful, and ſhall be performed according to law, and in the uſual courſe, and without wilful deviation, &c. A warranty being in the nature of a condition precedent, and, therefore, to be performed by the inſured before he can demand performance of the contract on the part of the inſurer, it is quite immaterial for what purpoſe, or with what view, it is made; or, whether the inſured had any view at all in making it: but, being once inſerted in the policy, it becomes a binding condition on the inſured; and unleſs he can ſhew that it has been literally fulfilled, he can derive no benefit from the policy.

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The very meaning of a warranty is, to preclude all queſtion whether it has been ſubſtantially complied with or not. If it be affirmative, it muſt be literally true; if promiſſory, it muſt be ſtrictly performed. The breach of a warranty, therefore, conſiſts either in the falſehood of an affirmative, or the non-performance of an executory, ſtipulation. In either caſe, the contract is void *ab initio*, the warranty being a condition-precedent: and, whether the thing warranted was material or not, whether the breach of it proceeded from fraud, negligence, miſinformation, or any other cauſe, the conſequence is the ſame. The warranty makes the contract hypothetical; that is, it ſhall be binding, *if* the warranty be complied with. With reſpect to the compliance with warranties, there is no latitude, no equity: the only queſtion is, has the thing warranted taken place or not? If it has not, the inſurer is not anſwerable for any loſs, even though it did not happen in conſequence of the breach of the warranty.

Representations. A repreſentation, in inſurance, is underſtood to mean a collateral ſtatement, either by parol or in writing, of ſuch facts or circumſtances relative to the propoſed adventure, and not inſerted in the policy, as are neceſſary for the information of the inſurer, to enable him to form a juſt eſtimate of the riſk. Such repreſentations are often the principal inducement to the contract, and afford the beſt ground upon which the premium can be calculated. A repreſentation may be untrue, either wilfully and fraudulently; or inadvertently and innocently. A wilful miſrepreſentation, or *aligatio falſi*, in any fact or circumſtance *material to the riſk*, is a fraud that will always avoid the contract. And ſuch miſrepreſentation ſo completely vitiates the policy, that the inſured cannot recover upon it, even for a loſs ariſing from a cauſe unconnected with the fact or circumſtance miſrepreſented.

There is a material difference between a repreſentation and a warranty. A warranty, being a condition upon which the contract is to take effect, is always a part of the written policy, and muſt appear on the face of it: whereas a repreſentation is only matter of collateral information or intelligence on the ſubject of the voyage inſured, and makes no part of the policy. A warranty, being in nature of a condition-precedent, muſt be *ſtrictly and literally* complied with; but, it is ſufficient, if a repretation be true in *ſubſtance*. By a warranty, whether material to the riſk or not, the inſured ſtakes his claim of indemnity upon the preciſe truth of it, if it be affirmative; or upon the exact performance of it, if executory; but it is ſufficient, if a repreſentation be made without fraud, and be not falſe in any material point; or if it be *ſubſtantially*, though not *literally*, fulfilled.

CONCEALMENT. Concealment is nearly allied to misrepresentation, and consists in the fraudulent suppression of any fact or circumstance material to the risk. This, like every other fraud, avoids the contract *ab initio*, upon principles of natural justice. And it is not merely on the ground of *fraud* that a concealment avoids the contract: even a concealment which is only the effect of accident, negligence, inadvertence, or mistake, will be equally fatal to the contract, as if it were intentional and fraudulent. Nor can the insured, by tendering any increase of premium, require the insurer to confirm it; for the insurer has a right to say that he would not have subscribed the policy upon any terms, if he had not been deceived.

SEA-WORTHINESS. No loss occasioned by the internal defect of the thing insured can fall on the insurer; and, therefore, if the ship be found incapable of performing the voyage insured, and her inability do not proceed from any accident or misfortune, or from the violence of the winds or waves, but from latent defects, existing before the voyage commenced, the insurer is discharged. There is, moreover, in every insurance, whether on ship or goods, an implied warranty that the ship shall be sea-worthy when the risk commences; that is, that she shall be *tight, staunch, and strong, properly manned, provided with all necessary stores*, and in all respects fit for the intended voyage. The consideration of the insurance is paid, in order that the insured may be indemnified against certain contingencies; and it supposes that the insurer may gain the premium: but if the ship be incapable of performing the voyage, there is no possibility of the insurer's gaining the premium, and, in that case, the contract, on his part, would be without consideration, and, consequently, void. The insurer undertakes to indemnify the insured against the *extraordinary and unforeseen perils of the sea*, and it would be absurd to suppose, that any man would insure against those perils, but in the confidence that the ship is in a condition to encounter the *ordinary perils* to which every ship must be exposed in the usual course of the voyage proposed.

DEVIATION. By deviation is here meant a voluntary departure, without any necessity, from the usual course of the voyage insured. From the moment this happens, the voyage is changed, the contract is determined, and the insurer is discharged from all subsequent responsibility. By the terms of the contract, the insurer only runs the risk of the voyage agreed upon, and of no other; and it is therefore a condition necessarily implied in the policy, that the ship shall proceed by the shortest and safest course to her port of destination, and on no account to deviate from that course, but in cases of necessity. By the course of the voyage is not meant *the shortest possible way* from the port of

departure to the port of deſtination; but the regular and cuſtomary track, if ſuch there be, which long uſage has proved to be the ſafeſt and moſt convenient. Therefore the ſtopping at certain places in the courſe of a voyage, though out of the direct line, is not a deviation, but a part of the voyage, if it has been the uſual and ſettled practice to ſtop at thoſe places; for whatever is uſually done, is preſumed to be foreſeen, and to be in the contemplation of the parties, and is therefore underſtood to be referred to by every policy, and to make a part of it as much as if it were expreſſed. The effect of a deviation is not to *vitiate or avoid* the policy, but only to determine it from the time of the deviation, and to diſcharge the inſurer from all ſubſequent reſponſibility. If, therefore, a ſhip, after her departure, receive damage, then deviate, and is afterwards loſt, though the inſurer is diſcharged from the time of the deviation, and is not anſwerable for the ſubſequent loſs; yet he is anſwerable for the damage received before the deviation; but although he is thus diſcharged from ſubſequent reſponſibility, yet he is intitled to retain the whole premium. A perſon unacquainted with the nature of this contract, might, at firſt view, be tempted to think that if, after a deviation, the ſhip ſhould reſume her proper courſe, ſtill being in good condition, and capable of performing the voyage, ſuch a deviation ought not to alter the rights of the parties, or deprive the inſured of the benefit of the policy.—But the anſwer is, that the condition implied in the contract, that the ſhip ſhall not deviate without neceſſity, being broken by the inſured, the inſurer is diſcharged. The proper courſe of the voyage being once interrupted cannot be reſumed in the eye of the law. The contract being once diſſolved, cannot be renewed without the conſent of both parties; and if a loſs happen after a deviation, who can ſay that the ſhip would not have arrived ſafe, if ſhe had purſued the uſual courſe? The ſhortneſs of the time, or of the diſtance, of a deviation, makes no difference as to its effect on the contract. Whether it be for one hour, or a month, or for one mile or one hundred, the conſequence is the ſame. If it be voluntary, and without neceſſity, it puts an end to the reſponſibility of the inſurer. The true reaſon why a deviation diſcharges the inſurer is, not the increaſe of the riſk, but, that the party contracting has voluntarily ſubſtituted another voyage for that which was inſured. A deviation that will diſcharge the inſurer, muſt be a voluntary departure from the uſual courſe of the voyage inſured, and not warranted by any neceſſity. If a deviation can be juſtified by neceſſity, the inſurer will ſtill remain liable. One general principle pervades all the caſes on this point; namely, that if the captain, in departing from the uſual courſe of the voyage, acts

fairly and *bonâ fide*, and according to the beſt of his judgment, for the benefit of all parties concerned, and has no other view but to conduct the ſhip and cargo, by the ſafeſt and ſhorteſt courſe, to her port of deſtination; what he does is within the ſpirit of the contract, and the voyage will ſtill be protected by it. It is no deviation to go out of the way to avoid danger.

Loss. Every loſs is either total or partial. The term *total loſs* is underſtood in two different ſenſes; natural and legal. In its natural ſenſe, it ſignifies the abſolute deſtruction of the thing inſured. In its legal ſenſe, it means not only the total deſtruction, but likewiſe ſuch damage to the thing inſured, though it may ſpecifically remain, as renders it of little or no value to the owner. So a loſs is ſaid to be total, if, in conſequence of the misfortune that has happened, the voyage be loſt, or not worth purſuing, and the projected adventure fruſtrated; or if the value of what is ſaved be leſs than the freight, &c. A *partial loſs* is any loſs or damage ſhort of, or not amounting to, a total loſs; for if it be not the latter, it muſt be the former. Loſſes are, 1*ſt*, By perils of the ſea; 2*d*, By running foul of another veſſel; 3*d*, By fire; 4*th*, By capture; 5*th*, By arreſt and detention of princes; 6*th*, By barratry; 7*th*, By average contributions; 8*th*, By expenſe of ſalvage; and 9*th*, Wilful or fraudulent. Of theſe ſubjects ſome explain themſelves ſufficiently for this work, and others have already been noticed; one head however requires elucidation.

Barratry. Barratry, (which is derived from the Italian verb *barratrare*, to cheat) may be defined to be, any ſpecies of fraud, knavery, deceit or cheating, committed by the maſter or mariners, whereby the owners ſuſtain an injury: As by running away with the ſhip, wilfully carrying her out of the courſe of the voyage preſcribed by the owners, ſinking or deſerting her, embezzling the cargo, ſmuggling or any other offence, whereby the ſhip or cargo may be ſubjected to arreſt, detention, loſs, or forfeiture: Barratry, in ſhort, comprehends every fraud that may be committed by the maſter or mariners againſt the owners.

Abandonment. It has already been obſerved that the term *total loſs* does not only ſignify the abſolute deſtruction of the thing inſured, but alſo ſuch a loſs or damage as renders it of little or no value to the owner, or any loſs or misfortune whereby the voyage is loſt, or becomes not worth purſuing, and the projected adventure fruſtrated. In ſuch caſes the inſured is intitled to call upon the inſurer as for a total loſs: but then he muſt *abandon*; that is, he muſt renounce and yield up to the inſurer all his right, title, and claim to what may be ſaved, and leave it to him to make the moſt of it for his own benefit

fit. The inſurer then ſtands in the place of the inſured, and becomes legally intitled to all that can be reſcued from deſtruction. In England we have no poſitive regulation, nor any time limited by law for abandoning. The rule eſtabliſhed by the courts is, that as ſoon as the inſured receives advice of a total loſs, he muſt make his election whether he will abandon or not: If he determines to abandon, he muſt give the underwriters notice of this *within a reaſonable time*, after the intelligence arrives; and any unneceſſary delay in giving this notice will amount to a waver of his right to abandon; for unleſs the owner does ſome act, ſignifying his intention to abandon, it will be only a partial loſs, whatever may be the nature of the caſe, or the extent of the damage. This rule, which has been long eſtabliſhed, is analogous to the general principle of the common law, which requires that all notices of acts affecting the intereſts of third perſons ſhall be given *within a reaſonable time*.

Many other points remain to be conſidered in relation to inſurances, as the adjuſtment of loſſes, the return of premiums in certain caſes, and the proceedings at law for recovery of the ſums ſecured by the policy; but theſe are in their nature ſo technical, that it would be impoſſible to abridge them with advantage; the reader is therefore referred to the works from which the preceding information has been derived; thoſe of Mr. Park, and Mr. Serjeant Marſhall.

EXCHANGE. Among the circumſtances of moſt importance to be conſidered in foreign trade, is that of exchange. The relative abundance and ſcarcity of ſpecie in different countries, forms what is called the *courſe of exchange*, which is the fixing of the actual and momentary value of money. The relative poſſeſſion of, and demand for ſpecie between nation and nation are never fixed, and conſequently the rate of exchange fluctuates, according to the wants of merchants, or the effect of their ſpeculations. When the exchange between two places, ſuch as London and Paris, is at par, it is ſaid to be a ſign that the debts due from London to Paris are compenſated by thoſe due from Paris to London. On the contrary, when a premium is paid at London for a bill upon Paris, it is ſaid to be a ſign that the debts due from London to Paris are not compenſated by thoſe due from Paris to London, but that a balance in money muſt be ſent out from the latter place; for the riſk, trouble, and expenſe of exporting which, the premium is both demanded and given. But the ordinary ſtate of debt and credit between thoſe two cities muſt neceſſarily be regulated, it is ſaid, by the ordinary courſe of their dealings with one another. When neither of them imports from the other to a greater

amount

amount than it exports to that other, the debts and credits of each may compenſate one another; but when one of them imports from the other to a greater value than it exports to that other, the former neceſſarily becomes indebted to it: the debts and credits of each do not compenſate one another, and money muſt be ſent out from that place of which the debts overbalance the credits. The ordinary courſe of exchange, therefore, being an indication of the ordinary ſtate of debt and credit between two places, muſt likewiſe be an indication of the ordinary courſe of their exports and imports, as theſe neceſſarily regulate that ſtate. The conſideration of this ſubject would lead to that of Bills of Exchange, but ſome obſervations on them and on promiſſory notes will be found in a following page.

ARBITRATION OF EXCHANGE. The various and intricate problems ariſing out of the various exchanges adopted in different countries, are referred to a ſyſtem in mercantile accounts, called the arbitration of exchange. This the commercial writers ſay, is the moſt beneficial, as well as the moſt delicate, branch of exchange to be thoroughly informed of. Before any one applies himſelf to the ſtudy of this ſubject, it is neceſſary that he ſhould be well ſkilled in all the practical operations, in regard to the reducing of the ſterling money of England into the foreign monies of exchange, and of account, of all places throughout Europe, according to the direct courſes of exchange, eſtabliſhed for theſe purpoſes, and *vice verſâ*. Alſo, that he ſhould be acquainted with the method of converting ſterling money into the monies of exchange, and of account, of all other places of commerce, wherewith England has no direct eſtabliſhed courſes of exchange, but is under the neceſſity of making uſe of the intermediate exchange of other places: together with the nature of the agios, and the manner of converting their bank monies into current, and the reverſe; and the manner of calculating all the foreign monies throughout Europe into thoſe of every other diſtinct country, either according to the direct, or intermediate exchange, which makes a much greater variety of caſes than thoſe who are not thoroughly acquainted with this extenſive ſubject can imagine. It is previouſly neceſſary, alſo, to the entering upon a knowledge of the arbitration of exchange, to know the intrinſic value of foreign monies, according to the moſt accurate aſſays which have been made for that purpoſe. Laſtly, it is requiſite to underſtand the general natural cauſes of the riſe and fall of the courſes of exchange between nation and nation, or between one trading city and another in the ſame nation.

BALANCE OF TRADE. That which is commonly meant by the balance of trade, is the equal importing of the foreign commodities,

dities, with the exporting the native. And it is reckoned that nation has the advantage in the balance of trade, that exports more of the native commodities, and imports leſs of the foreign. The reaſon of this is, that, if the native commodities be of a greater value that are exported, the balance of that account muſt be made up in bullion or money; and the nation grows ſo much richer as the balance of that account amounts to.

Companies. Many of the moſt important and extenſive claſſes of Britiſh commerce have been, and ſome ſtill are, carried on by means of chartered companies. The moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe, the Eaſt India Company, will claim notice in another diviſion of the work; of ſome others an account is now given.

South Sea Company. Of the origin of this company, and of its moſt celebrated tranſaction, the following account is extracted from Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole. The South Sea Company owed its origin to a chimerical project, formed by Harley in 1711, for the purpoſe of reſtoring the public credit which had been greatly affected by the diſmiſſion of the Whig miniſtry, and of eſtabliſhing a fund for the diſcharge of the navy and army debentures, and the other parts of the floating debt, which amounted to 9,471,325*l.*; and was afterwards increaſed to 10,000,000*l.* With a view to ſettle a fund for paying the intereſt of 6 per cent. on theſe arrears, which amounted to the annual ſum of 568,279 *l.* all the duties upon wines, vinegar, tobacco, India goods, wrought ſilks, whale fins, and a few other duties were rendered permanent. In order to allure the creditors with the hopes of advantages from a new commerce, the monopoly of a trade to the South Sea, or coaſt of Spaniſh America, was granted to a company compoſed of the ſeveral proprietors of this funded debt, which being incorporated by act of parliament, took the appellation of the South Sea Company. The great advantages to be derived from this commerce had been held forth and exaggerated from the time of our firſt voyages to Spaniſh America, in the reign of Elizabeth, and had been ſtill further increaſed by the reports of the buccaneers. The conſiderable riches which France had brought from America, ſince the eſtabliſhment of Philip V. on the throne of Spain, had contributed to raiſe the ſanguine expectations of the Britiſh merchants; a rumour induſtriouſly circulated, that four ports on the coaſts of Peru and Chili, were to be ceded by Spain, inflamed the general ardour; the proſpect of exchanging gold, ſilver, and rich drugs for the manufactures of England, were plauſible allurements for an enterpriſing and commercial nation; and the mines of Potoſi and Mexico were to diffuſe their inexhauſtible ſtores through the medium of the new company.

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The famous act of parliament, which incorporated the ſubſcribers of the debts, under the name of the governor and company of merchants of Great Britain trading to the South Seas and other parts of the country, was called the earl of Oxford's maſter-piece, and conſidered by his panegyriſts as the ſure means of bringing an inexhauſtible mine of riches into England. But in fact this ſcheme was ſettled on a falſe foundation; for by the peace of Utrecht, Spain and the Indies being confirmed to Philip V. that monarch was too jealous to admit the Engliſh to a free trade in the South Sea, and inſtead of the advantageous commerce which Oxford had held forth, the company obtained only the aſſiento contract, or the privilege of ſupplying the Spaniſh colonies with negroes for thirty years, with the permiſſion of ſending to Spaniſh America an annual ſhip, limited both as to tonnage and value of cargo, of the profits of which the king of Spain reſerved one fourth, and five *per cent.* on the other three fourths. But this diſappointment was attempted to be counteracted by the declaration made by Oxford, that Spain had permitted two ſhips, in addition to the annual ſhip, to carry merchandize during the firſt year to the northern coaſts of Spaniſh America, and a pompous nomination of the ſeveral ports where the company had leave to trade, and to ſettle factories. But the grand benefits of this commerce were never realized. The firſt voyage of the annual ſhip was not made till 1717, and in the following year, the trade was ſuppreſſed by the rupture with Spain. Their effects, factories and ſervants were ſeized and detained, notwithſtanding the agreement in the aſſiento, which allowed, in caſe of a rupture, eighteen months for the removal of their effects.

Such was the ſtate of the South Sea Company, when in 1720 the miniſtry, inſtead of attempting to leſſen the national incumbrances, by the only juſt and ſucceſsful means, a clear and inviolable ſinking fund, adopted the viſionary ſchemes of projectors, and gave to the South Sea Company the power of faſcinating the minds of the public, and ſpreading an infatuation ſimilar to that which had recently involved France in a national bankruptcy. The grand point which government had in view, was the reduction of the irredeemable annuities, created in the reigns of William and Anne, for a period of 89, 96, and 99 years, amounting nearly to 800,000*l.* per annum, as no effectual meaſures could be adopted to leſſen the public debts, whilſt theſe annuities remained irredeemable.

In order to effect this liquidation, the miniſter accepted propoſals from the South Sea Company for reducing the debts to a redeemable ſtate: as the object of the miniſters, who had previouſly and ſecretly arranged the ſcheme with the directors, was

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to ſurpriſe the Houſe of Commons into the meaſure of granting this extenſive privilege to the South Sea Company, and of preventing competition, they entertained the moſt ſanguine hopes of ſucceſs, from the ſpecious advantages which they held forth to the public as the neceſſary conſequences. They accordingly laid the buſineſs before a committee of the Houſe of Commons. After ſeveral debates it was adopted. The general phrenzy in favour of this project ſoon roſe to an enormous height. The compenſation to the South Sea Company, for the immediate payment of the 7,567,500*l.* ſeemingly for no value received, was to be drawn from the profits of their ſcheme. Theſe profits were to ariſe from, 1ſt. The excluſive advantages of the trade, which, although precarious, and depending on a peace with Spain, were ſtated at no leſs than 200,000*l.* a year. 2d. The allowance for the charge of management, which was to be proportioned to the augmentation of their ſtock. 3d. The difference of receiving 5 *per cent.* for the money expended in purchaſing the public debts, when the uſual intereſt was only 4 *per cent.* 4th. The great addition to their wealth, from the conſtant riſe of the price of the ſtock in conſequence of the artifices uſed to enhance its value; on which the whole ſucceſs of the ſcheme depended.

The company could not fulfil its engagements with government, and pay ſo large a ſum as between ſeven and eight millions, without taking advantage of the general infatuation, and availing themſelves of that ſpirit of pecuniary enterpriſe which had ſeized the public mind. Imaginary advantages were accordingly held forth; groundleſs and myſterious reports were circulated concerning valuable acquiſitions in the South Sea, and hidden treaſures; dividends of ten, thirty, and even fifty *per cent.* were voted, which the directors knew could never be paid, and for which there was no foundation.

The promoters of the ſcheme highly exaggerated the profits; rumours were at the ſame time ſpread, that the company by monopolizing the fund of the whole national debt, would reduce government to the neceſſity of applying to them for loans, which would be advanced on their own terms; and it was even inſinuated, the proprietors would obtain, by the weight of their wealth, a majority in the houſe of commons, and make and depoſe miniſters. The public being intoxicated with theſe ideas, the ſtock, which at the cloſe of the books at Chriſtmas, 1719, was only at 126, roſe, at the opening of the firſt ſubſcription, on the 14th of April, to above 300*l.* the market price being on that day 325: in other words, the creditors of the nation made over a debt of 100 for 33⅓ in South Sea ſtock. As the phrenzy ſpread, and the deſire of making rapid.

rapid fortunes became contagious, the ſtock ſucceſſively roſe to above 1,000 *per cent.* at which price the books were opened for the fourth ſubſcription on the 24th of Auguſt, and this ſubſcription, though the market price of the eſtabliſhed ſtock was below 800*l.* was ſold the ſame day for a premium of 30 and 40 *per cent.*

The ſanguine cupidity, which marked this ſpeculation, was not confined to the South Sea ſcheme: the whole nation became ſtock jobbers and projectors; every day produced new propoſals*, ſome of apparent importance and utility, others ſo abſurd and futile, that their ſucceſs was matter of ſurpriſe, and almoſt exceeds credibility. So prevalent was this rage, amongſt perſons even of the higheſt rank, that the Prince of Wales was induced to become governor of the copper company. In vain Walpole and Compton endeavoured to diſſuade him from this act of degradation, by repreſenting, that he ſubjected himſelf to a proſecution, that he would be reviled in parliament, and that the *Prince of Wales's bubble* would be hawked about in 'Change-alley. Their remonſtrances had no effect, the prince became governor, but afterwards on receiving notice that a proſecution would be commenced againſt the company, withdrew his name, with a gain of 40,000*l.*

Theſe deluſive projects received their firſt check from the power to which they owed their birth: the directors of the South Sea Company, jealous of their ſucceſs, and deſirous to monopolize all the money of the ſpeculators, obtained writs of *ſcire facias* againſt the conductors of bubbles, and thus put an end to them. But in opening the eyes of the deluded multitude, they took away the main prop of their own tottering edifice. Suſpicion once excited was not to be ſuppreſſed, and the public no longer amuſed by pompous declarations and promiſes of dividends, which they were convinced could never be realized, declined all farther purchaſes of ſtock, which fell in leſs than three weeks to 400, and thoſe who had bought at large premiums were involved in diſtreſs and ruin. Amongſt the numbers who ſuffered by theſe ſpeculations, were not only perſons of the firſt rank, but merchants and traders of every claſs, and bankers, who having advanced the monies committed to

* The reader will find nearly two hundred of theſe bubbles enumerated in Anderſon's Hiſtory of Commerce, vol. iii. p. 103. Amongſt the moſt abſurd may be mentioned, projects for tranſmuting quick-ſilver into malleable and fine metal. For importing a number of large jack-aſſes from Spain, in order to propagate a large breed of mules; and for trading in human hair. But the moſt impudent and bare-faced deluſion, was that of a man who advertiſed that upon payment of two guineas, the ſubſcribers ſhould be intitled to a hundred pound ſhare, in a project which would be diſcloſed in a month. The extreme folly of the public was ſuch, that he received a thouſand of theſe ſubſcriptions in one day and then went off.

to them, on the ſubcription receipts, by their temporary ſtoppages augmented the general calamity.

When the public diſtreſs was arrived to a moſt alarming height, and deſpair pervaded all ranks of people, to Walpole every eye was directed, as the only perſon capable of affording aſſiſtance, under the preſſure of immediate neceſſity. When the aid of the bank became neceſſary to preſerve the South Sea Company from ruin, he was called from the country, and importuned to uſe his intereſt with the governors, to perſuade them to accept a propoſal made by the South Sea Company, to circulate a number of their bonds. At this awful moment the clamour of diſtreſs was irreſiſtible, and the bank after great reluctance, ariſing from a natural dread of being involved in the ſame ruin which threatened the South Sea Company, was at length induced to liſten to the propoſals. Walpole was preſent at ſeveral conferences between the committees of the two companies, and drew up in the firſt conference, a minute well known afterwards by the name of the Bank contract, ſpecifying the agreement of the Bank, to circulate three millions of South Sea bonds for one year, on certain conditions, which were ſpecified at a ſubſequent meeting. The report of his interference, and the intended aid to be given by the bank, occaſioned a temporary riſe in the South Sea ſtock, but the public was in ſuch a ſtate of terror and agitation, and ſo deſperate was the ſituation of the South Sea Company, that any community of intereſts between the two companies was conſidered as fatal to both. In conſequence of this notion, ſuch a demand was made on the bank, that the governors refuſed to abide by the terms of their agreement; alleging that it was deficient in legal validity.

The critical ſtate of the nation having rendered the immediate preſence of the king neceſſary, he haſtily quitted his German dominions, and landed at Margate on the 9th of November. But his preſence had not the deſired effect. South Sea ſtock, which at the king's arrival was at 210, fell in a few days to 135. The public now looked with anxious expectation for the aſſembling of parliament, which was to meet on the 25th of November; yet ſuch were the difficulties under which the miniſtry laboured to form a proper ſcheme for remedying the national diſtreſs, which daily increaſed, that it was farther prorogued to the 8th of December.

Nor is it a matter of wonder that the miniſtry were alarmed, and uncertain what meaſures to purſue. England had never experienced ſo total a deſtruction of credit, never was any country in ſo violent a paroxyſm of deſpondency and terror. The South Sea Company was conſidered as the ſole cauſe of

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all the national misfortunes; the directors were indiscriminately loaded with execrations, and devoted by the public voice to condign punishment. Those who had promoted the scheme were involved in the same general detestation. The king, in addition to the odium of being a foreigner, and governed by foreign counsels, and increasing his own dominions in Germany, at the expense of England, was now most virulently reviled for having favoured the South Sea Act. Well founded suspicions were formed, that his German ministers and mistresses had received enormous largesses in stock to recommend and promote the project. Most of the principal ministers of the English cabinet, Townshend excepted, were accused of being implicated in the same scandalous traffic, either by themselves or their relations, and had totally forfeited the public opinion. A general outcry prevailed, that the king and ministers had leagued with the South Sea Company to dupe the nation, and that the remedy for these enormous evils would be more dangerous than the disorder itself.

The public discontents were increased to so great a height, that some of his Hanoverian counsellors suggested the rashest measures. They advised the king to affect a resignation of the crown to the Prince of Wales, and insinuated, that William his great predecessor, had surmounted the factions of the times by threatening to retire, and leave the country to its fate. As a last and desperate effort, he was recommended to apply to the army to sound the officers, many of whom, it was said, had declared, that rather than submit to the establishment of a commonwealth, or a popish competitor, they would assist to render the king absolute. Others were alarmed, and dreaded a misunderstanding between the king and the parliament; deprecated any attempt to apply to the army, opposed the resignation of the crown, by insinuating, that it was not the first time, that a king of England had ruined himself by retiring, with the hope of quelling the fury of the populace; advised rather, that secret applications should be made to the Emperor and the other allies for troops, if necessary, to defend his person against any rebellious attempts.

In this alarming crisis, the king was pensive and desponding, uncertain how to act, and by whom to be directed.

Fortunately, in this moment of suspense and agitation, the public voice called forth Walpole, as the only man calculated to save the nation from impending destruction. In conjunction with Townshend, he stood at the head of a large party, highly respected for their *tried* integrity; among whom the names of Cavendish and Russell were most conspicuous, who had uniformly acted with him; while the dukes of Newcastle, Bolton, Grafton,

Grafton, and many other whigs who had united with Sunderland, were now ready to join his ſtandard. He was attached to government by the office of paymaſter to the forces; but as he had ſcarcely taken any part in public tranſactions, he did not ſhare with adminiſtration the general odium. He had gained great popularity by his uniform oppoſition to the South Sea Act, and by having predicted the evils which were now moſt ſeverely felt.

The moment in which it was publickly known that Walpole, in conjunction with Townſhend, was employed on a ſcheme for the reſtoration of public credit, a new ſpirit and reſolution ſeemed to be infuſed into the nation. The country revived from its late deſpondency; and his ability for finance was ſo thoroughly appreciated, that a propoſal which he made to the miniſter on the 19th of November, being agreed to, had ſuch an inſtantaneous effect, as again to raiſe the ſtock from 125 to 200. On the meeting of parliament, Walpole, after ſurmounting many difficulties, carried a propoſition to engraft nine millions of ſtock into the bank of England, and the ſame ſum into the Eaſt India company, on certain conditions, leaving twenty millions to the South Sea company. The proceedings taken againſt the directors were extremely ſevere. A ſecret committee was appointed; the caſhier of the company having eſcaped with their moſt important regiſter, four members were expelled the houſe and taken into cuſtody. The other directors ſhared the ſame fate; all their books, papers, and effects were ſeized, and the royal aſſent was given to a bill, for reſtraining them from leaving the kingdom, diſcovering their eſtates, and diſqualifying them for holding offices in any of the companies. Finally, a bill was brought in for the relief of the ſufferers by the South Sea company, the title of which, on the third reading, was changed into a bill for raiſing money on the eſtates of the ſub and deputy governors, directors, caſhier, deputy caſhier, and accountant of the South Sea company, and of Mr. Aiſlabie and Mr. Craggs, towards making good the damages ſuſtained by the company, and for diſabling ſuch of thoſe perſons as were living, to hold any place, or ſit in parliament for the future. In conſequence of theſe reſolutions, the greater part of the eſtates belonging to the directors, and other perſons mentioned therein, were confiſcated to a very large amount, and applied towards diſcharging the debts of the company. The eſtates of the directors alone were valued at 2,014,123 *l.*, the allowance made to them was 354,600 *l.*, the confiſcation, therefore, amounted to 1,659,523 *l.* Yet theſe enormous forfeitures did not ſatisfy the unrelenting advocates for extreme ſeverity, many of whom expected nothing leſs than confiſcation of

all their property, and ſeveral were diſſatisfied becauſe the puniſhment of death was not inflicted. An eminent hiſtorian has juſtly remarked, that "the equity of modern times muſt condemn the arbitrary proceedings which diſgraced the cauſe of juſtice, by introducing a bill of pains and penalties, a retroactive ſtatute, to puniſh offences which did not exiſt when they were committed." "Againſt a bill of pains and penalties," he obſerves," it is the common right of every ſubject to be heard by his council at the bar; they prayed to be heard, their prayer was refuſed; and their oppreſſors, who required no evidence, would liſten to no defence."

From this period, by a progreſs which it is not neceſſary to trace, the South Sea company has been reduced to one of little importance. For a time it received ſome benefits of the Aſſiento, traded in ſlaves, and employed ſhips in the whale fiſhery; but now its operations are limited to the management of the ſtock mentioned in Vol. II. p. 99. The company is under the control of a governor, who is the king, a ſub and deputy governor, and twenty-one directors, aſſiſted by caſhiers, ſecretaries and other officers. The buſineſs is tranſacted in a ſpacious and handſome building in Threadneedle-ſtreet, called the South Sea Houſe.

Whale Fishery. The whale fiſhery has been mentioned as one of the modes in which the South Sea company employed a portion of their funds. This was in 1725, but before that time the Engliſh nation, rivalling the Dutch, had ſent ſhips to Greenland for whales, and in 1693, a company was eſtabliſhed in London for the proſecution of this trade. In a few years, the fiſhing company utterly failed, and the attempt of the South Sea company was not more proſperous; but the trade being open, individuals continued to follow it, and generally with good ſucceſs, government having ſeconded their efforts by exemptions from duty, and by bounties. Beſide that to Greenland, there is a ſouthern whale fiſhery, carried on in the American ſeas, and ſimilarly encouraged, which is alſo very productive.

Russia Company. The trade between Great Britain and Ruſſia owes its origin to the following circumſtance. In 1553, ſome merchants of London, together with ſeveral noblemen, emulous of the fame, and deſirous of ſharing in the profits acquired by the Portugueſe and Spaniſh diſcoverers of unknown lands, eſtabliſhed a company, with a capital of 6000*l.* in 240 ſhares of 25*l.* for proſecuting diſcoveries. The celebrated Sebaſtian Cabot, who was a principal adviſer of the undertaking, was choſen their governor. Three veſſels were fitted out under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby, and they carried letters

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from Edward VI. addreſſed to all kings and princes, requeſting their friendſhip. Sir Hugh Willoughby, being toſſed about a long time by tempeſtuous weather, as far as 72 degrees of north latitude, was compelled by the ſudden approach of winter, to run into an obſcure harbour in Ruſſian Lapland, called Arcina Keca, where he and the crews of two of his ſhips (70 in number) were frozen to death; and where ſome Ruſſian fiſhermen, in the ſummer following, found him ſitting in his cabin, with his diary and other papers before him; it being the cuſtom of thoſe Laplanders to frequent the ſea coaſts in ſummer for the benefit of the fiſhery; but when winter approaches, to withdraw into the calmer inland parts, which occaſions thoſe ſtormy ſhores to be deſolate in winter. Richard Chancellor, however, in the third ſhip, accidentally fell into the Bay of St. Nicholas, or the White Sea, on the Ruſſian coaſt, and where no ſhip had ever been ſeen before, and landed at the Abbey of St. Nicholas, near Archangel, then only a caſtle, determining to wait on the czar, John Bazilowitz. Being at that time engaged in the Livonian war, which had greatly interrupted the Eaſtland trade, that prince was the more inclinable, by Chancellor's interpoſition, to grant the Engliſh conſiderable privileges at Archangel and other ports. The Ruſſians, before thoſe times, having no ſea ports nor ſhipping on the Baltic ſhores, their rich furs, hemp, and other commodities, were carried to other parts of Europe from the ports of Livonia, lately poſſeſſed by the Teutonic knights of St. Mary of Jeruſalem. Thus, though diſappointed in his hopes of arriving at China by this ſuppoſed north-eaſt paſſage, Chancellor made an uſeful and profitable diſcovery of a trade by ſea to Ruſſia; and this diſcovery, moreover, pointed out to the Engliſh the way to the whale fiſhery at Spitzbergen. From Archangel, by the governor's leave and aſſiſtance, Chancellor travelled on ſledges to the czar at Moſcow, of whom he obtained privileges for the Engliſh merchants, and letters to king Edward. It is here to be remarked, that although Ochter had almoſt 700 years before juſtly delineated the coaſt of Norway to the Great king Alfred, yet, through the negligence and ignorance of after-times, the knowledge of it was ſo utterly loſt, that the famous Sebaſtian Munſter's *Geographia vetus et nova*, printed in folio at Baſil 1540, in a map of the moſt northern parts of Europe, joins the country of Groneland, commonly called old Greenland, (now known to be a part of the great continent of North America) to the north part of Norwegian Lapland, thereby making the northern ocean merely a great Bay, entirely ſhut in by thoſe two countries.

King Edward was moſt happy to encourage the commerce of which a view was thus opened; but as he died before he had

executed a very ample charter to thoſe adventurers, it was in the firſt and ſecond year of Philip and Mary, (6th of February,) that the firſt charter of incorporation was granted to the Ruſſia Company (as it has ſince been uſually called), but then by the name of the Merchants Adventurers, for the diſcovery of lands, countries, iſles, &c. not before known or frequented by any Engliſh. The preamble to this charter, and the ſubſtance of the whole it ſets forth is, that the Marquis of Winchester, then lord high treaſurer; the earl of Arundel, lord ſteward of the Queen's houſehold; the earl of Bedford, lord privy ſeal; the earl of Pembroke; the lord Howard of Effingham, lord high admiral, &c. having already fitted out ſhips for the diſcovery of countries northward, north-eaſtward, and north-weſtward, not as yet frequented by other Chriſtian monarchs in friendſhip with England. To have one governor (the firſt to be Sebaſtian Cabot, during his life) and twenty-eight of the moſt ſad (ſedate), diſcreet, and honeſt of the ſaid fellowſhips, four of whom to be called conſuls, and the other twenty-four to be called aſſiſtants: The governor and two conſuls (or three conſuls in the governor's abſence) and twelve aſſiſtants to be the quorum of a court. This corporation might purchaſe lands to the yearly value of 66*l.* 13*s.* 4*d.*, have perpetual ſucceſſion; and a common ſeal; may plead and be impleaded; may impoſe mulcts, forfeitures, &c. on offenders againſt their privileges, and may admit perſons from time to time to be free of the company and may make conqueſts of lands of infidels ſo to be diſcovered by them. "And whereas one of the ſaid ſhips (Chancellor's) ſet forth laſt year (1553), arrived ſafe and wintered in the dominions of our couſin and brother Lord John Bazilowitz, emperor of all Ruſſia, who entertained them honorably, &c. and granted them letters to us, with licence to traffic freely in his country, with other privileges under his ſignet: Wherefore we grant this corporation liberty to reſort, not only to all parts of that emperor's dominions, but to all other parts not known to our ſubjects, none of whom, but ſuch as ſhall be free of or licenſed by this company, ſhall frequent the parts aforeſaid, under forfeiture of ſhips and merchandize, one half to the crown, one half to the company." It ſeems the Briſtol merchants had entered into the Ruſſia trade ſoon after its diſcovery, being encouraged therein by Sir Sebaſtian Cabot.

The fortunes of this company were chequered with ſucceſs and diſaſter. Sometimes protected by great privileges, they enjoyed almoſt a monopoly of Ruſſian commerce, and derived from it great profits; at others, they were obliged to contend with rivals for ſuperiority, and to try other branches of trade

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and fiſhery to maintain their eſtabliſhments. The company ſtill continues according to the original charter, but by a ſtat. 10 and 11 William, c. 6, every ſubject may be admitted to its fellowſhip, on paying 5 *l.* Each member pays an additional guinea to the poor box; 5*s.* to the ſecretary, and 2*s.* 6*d.* to the beadle of the company, beſides ſtamps; alſo a ſmall rate fixed by the company, on all goods imported into England only, from Archangel, Onega, Peterſburg and Narva. On this trade, after giving very ample details, Mr. Oddy makes the following obſervations. In taking a general view of the trade of Ruſſia, we cannot help obſerving how amazingly advantageous its trade is with the Britiſh dominions. Not only the amount of the ſales is equal nearly to thoſe of all other nations, but it is from Britain only that Ruſſia receives a balance in caſh. Were the trade ſuſpended, the importation of wines, brandies, and foreign produce and manufactures, from other countries, would totally abſorb the monied capital of Ruſſia; and it is not going too far to ſay, that ſuch an event would do it more harm than any other that could take place. Ruſſia can only grow wealthy by internal induſtry, and its connection with other nations; but thoſe two things are dependent upon each other. The introduction of foreign goods ſtimulates the people to induſtry; but they could not be introduced in half the quantity they now are, if it were not for Britain. In the relation between nations, we are always obliged to ſtate values nominally, but the reader ſhould keep in mind that the nominal is not the real value, as compared with that in another country. In the caſe of Ruſſia, money is certainly of three times the value that it is in England; ſo that tallow, iron, timber, &c. produced by Ruſſia, are ſold at an immenſe price: when they receive 60*s.* a cwt. for tallow, it is as if we were receiving 9 *l.* and ſo of other produce. While the Ruſſians can produce things ſo cheap, and ſell them ſo dear, they muſt be increaſing in wealth; and it is not improbable that, as they certainly could afford to ſell much cheaper than they do, as they increaſe in induſtry and capital, they will reduce their prices. The great riſe of the prices of Ruſſia produce, that has taken place of late years, has ariſen from the demand increaſing faſter than the production; but this will ceaſe, and the Ruſſians, in order to obtain a more extenſive market, will be obliged to reduce their prices. This they will naturally do in the ſame way with other nations; that is, they will come down to ſuch a price as will merely afford a fair profit. We cannot ſo well judge of productions in any thing elſe as in iron, the value of which is regulated by the price of fuel and the wages of labour; yet, though both are three times as high, or more, we can produce iron here cheaper, than we

can import it from Ruſſia. Though it is eaſy to ſee that many miſtakes are committed by the Ruſſian government in its endeavours to forward commerce, yet thoſe endeavours are inceſſant, and have already produced great effects; its immenſe extent, the line of politics that has been followed, and the opening of ports on the Black Sea, will tend to civilize the interior of the country, which, together with the canals that are carrying on, muſt in a few years produce great changes. When we look at the paſt, we may anticipate the future. The riſe of Peterſburg, the general increaſe of commerce, and the vaſt augmentation of power; the rapid riſe of Odeſſa, and the numerous efforts made to haſten the progreſs towards proſperity, leave no doubt as to the important part that nation will ſoon act on the theatre of Europe.

Eastland Company. In various periods of time, the merchants of England had charters from the crown for regulating their commerce into the eaſt country, a name of old, and ſtill, given by mercantile people to the ports of the Baltic ſea, but more eſpecially in Pruſſia and Livonia. In 1579, Queen Elizabeth, agreeable to the genius of the age, granted them a charter, excluſive of all who ſhould not take up their freedom in their company, by the name of the Fellowſhip of Eaſtland Merchants. Their privileges were, 'to enjoy the ſole trade through the Sound, 'into Norway, Sweden, Poland, Lithuania, excepting Narva, '(which was within the Ruſſia company's charter,) Pruſſia, and 'alſo Pomerania, from the river Oder eaſtward, Dantzic, Elbing, and Koningſberg; alſo to Copenhagen and Elſinore, 'and to Finland, (here called an iſle,) Gothland, Bornholm, 'and Oeland; to have a governor, deputy or deputies, and 'twenty-four aſſiſtants, who may make bye-laws, and impoſe 'fines, impriſonments, &c. on all non-freemen trading to thoſe 'parts.' It was principally deſigned by the Queen for the encouragement of her own merchants, in oppoſition to the Hanſeatics. This is what is called in England a *regulated company*, *i. e.* a company trading, not on a joint ſtock, but every one on his ſeparate bottom, under certain regulations. This charter was farther confirmed by one from Charles I. in 1629; but the company have been frequently complained of by the Engliſh merchants, and were therefore curtailed by legal authority in 1672. And finally, being, with all other monopolizing companies, (not confirmed by parliament,) deemed illegal in times of true liberty, after the revolution, in conſequence of the act called the declaration of rights, they do not now exiſt commercially, or otherwiſe, but in name only, which they ſtill keep up, by continuing to elect their annual officers; and having (like the merchants of the ſtaple, another company in ſimilar circumſtances) a little

ſtock

ſtock in the public funds. The intereſt defrays the expenſes of their yearly meetings, which are for no end but to commemorate their former exiſtence.

Turkey Company. The commerce between Great Britain and Turkey began in the ſixteenth century, when the Ottoman power was at its moſt formidable height. In 1581, the London Turkey Company had its charter granted, and ſprang from a decayed company of merchants trading to Barbary; it was once a joint ſtock company, and has been ſome time, as it now is, a regulated company, having its own, and bye-laws, which are contained in one hundred and thirty-eight articles. The admiſſion into this company is by application to the governor, deputy-governor, treaſurer or ſecretary, paying twenty pounds, taking the oaths preſcribed; and conforming to its bye-laws and regulations. The company conſiſts of a governor, a deputy, a treaſurer, and a court of aſſiſtants, eighteen in number. From them are formed two committees called government and quarantine committees. This company, which is alſo called the Levant Company, has a houſe in little St. Helen's, Biſhopſgate-ſtreet.

There is a Britiſh conſul general at Conſtantinople, entirely for commercial purpoſes; and there are conſuls at Smyrna, Salonica, Alexandria and Aleppo; vice conſuls at Patras, Scio, and the Dardanelles, and an agent at Cyprus, who are appointed by the Levant company, or by their recommendation. An act paſſed in 1780, allowing the Iriſh the ſame privileges as the Britiſh merchants in this trade, ſo that it is open to all Britiſh ſubjects becoming members of this company; and, that every one trading there ſhould become ſuch is good policy; for ſome diſcoveries, leading to ſuch a regulation, were made, ariſing from French products and manufactures being imported into Turkey, under the former Britiſh privileges. An act was paſſed, in 1753, for regulating the company, and authorizing them to make bye-laws. The French account of the Britiſh Levant trade, given in 1787, is intereſting; and, to this day, they view it with a moſt envious and wiſhful eye. According to the fluctuating politics of Divan, and the aſcendancy or failure of French intrigue, the Britiſh commerce with Turkey has been more or leſs extenſive and flouriſhing. That it may be productive of great and permanent national advantage is indiſputable, that under ſuch circumſtances it ever will, is much to be doubted.

Some other companies eſtabliſhed for the proſecution of foreign trade will be mentioned in other diviſions of the work; as the African, the Sierra Leone, and the Hudſon's Bay companies.

HOME TRADE.

In this diviſion will be reviewed the internal commerce, compriſing the principal manufactures and produce of the country, with obſervations on many regulations and circumſtances, from which are derived facility and ſecurity to thoſe engaged in trade, and thoſe who have tranſactions with them.

Many reaſons may be aſſigned for the prevailing error by which perſons ſpeculating on the nature of commerce are induced to conſider foreign as of far ſuperior importance to home trade.

The illuſions created by theories drawn from the balance of commerce, the deſire to render profit more acceptable by repreſenting it as gained at the expenſe of ſome political opponent, and above all, the inclination prevalent in the human mind to eſtimate moſt highly that which ſeems to be produced with the greateſt labour and riſque, and to undervalue the acquiſitions which are copious, conſtant and ſilent, when compared with thoſe which preſent to the mind ideas of enterpriſe, danger and achievement; all theſe motives concur with many others in giving riſe to calculations ſo erroneous. That the foreign trade of Great Britain is attended with immenſe advantages cannot be doubted; and that portion of it which ariſes from colonies is alſo of the higheſt value; but theſe together cannot be put in competition with the home trade, including the internal and coaſting navigation, which conſtitute the real riches and ſtrength of the empire, and which may yet be extended to a degree far exceeding its preſent amount. On the abſurdity of expecting greater advantages from foreign or colonial, than from domeſtic commerce, Lord Sheffield made the following obſervations, at the time when that peace was concluded which bereft the Britiſh nation of the ſovereignty of America; an event which many perſons, leſs enlightened than his lordſhip, conſidered as the forerunner of England's ruin:

"Had America been ſettled by any other nation, it is more "than probable that Great Britain had been more populous "and powerful; that her taxes had been much lighter, and "her debt much leſs. Had the emigrants been retained at "home, whoſe progeny now (1784) form a people of nearly "two millions, in a climate no ways ſuperior, and in moſt "parts inferior, to that of Britain and Ireland: had the "lands at home, which ſtill continue waſte, been given them "on condition of cultivation, and bounties been added to "encourage new products of agriculture; had they been "planted on the banks of our rivers and our bays with a view

"to

" to fiſheries; they would have increaſed the people and aug-
" mented the opulence of Great Britain, in the ſame propor-
" tion as the coloniſts have for many years formed a balance to
" our population, and to our power. Nothing can be more
" impolitic, at leaſt in a commercial nation, than a fondneſs
" for foreign dominions, and a propenſity to encourage diſtant
" colonization, rather than promote domeſtic induſtry and po-
" pulation at home. *The internal trade of Great Britain is much*
" *greater than its external commerce. The beſt cuſtomers of the ma-*
" *nufacturers of Britain are the people of Britain.* Every emi-
" grant conſequently, from being the beſt cuſtomer, becomes
" the worſt; and from being a ſoldier or ſailor, who may be
" brought forward on the day of danger, ceaſes to be of any
" ſervice to the ſtate in any ſhape. Let conſiderations of ad-
" vantage and protection hereafter go hand in hand together.
" In moſt caſes the expenſe of protection and civil government
" is much greater than the prevention of competition is worth;
" a prevention which is very ſeldom complete. The ſuperior
" ſtate of Britiſh manufactures in general does not require
" other means of monopoly than what their ſuperiority and
" cheapneſs will give. If we have not purchaſed our experi-
" ence ſufficiently dear, let us derive a leſſon of wiſdom from
" the misfortunes of other nations, who, like us, purſued the
" phantom of foreign conqueſt and diſtant colonization, and
" who, in the end, found themſelves leſs populous, opulent and
" powerful."

Wool. As the woollen manufacture is deemed the ſtaple commodity of England, it is judged moſt fit to notice that firſt among the objects of home trade, intended here to be deſcribed. It cannot be doubted, that as the inhabitants of Britain and Ireland, ſo the ſheep alſo, came originally from ſome other country, and probably from Spain; but the report that Henry II. or ſome other prince, ſent for rams or ſheep from thence, in order to improve our breed, is conſidered fabulous. At what period the manufacture was firſt introduced, is not aſcertained; but that England poſſeſſed it, at leaſt in ſome degree, about the beginning of the twelfth century, is indiſputable. There ſeems to be but ſmall, if any, foundation for the tale of Edward IV. ſending over ſome Engliſh ſheep from Cotſwold to Spain, and thus conferring on that country, its excellent breed of ſheep. The Spaniards themſelves attribute the great improvement of their wool to the care of Cardinal Ximenes, who brought over from Africa, rams bred by the Arabians; a practice by no means new in Spain, where the management and improvement of their flocks has always been the favoured point of their economy.

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As wool and woollen manufactures continued for many ages the principal commodities of this country, ſo they were the conſtant objects of government. Our Kings drew a large revenue from the cuſtoms on wool exported, a great part of which went into the Low Countries, where it was manufactured in great perfection, to the no ſmall emolument of the inhabitants, who, while they could be plentifully ſupplied by us, did not give themſelves much concern about procuring wool from other countries. As our manufacture alſo became conſiderable, and much of our woollen cloth was exported; many regulations were made for fixing its reputation, by aſcertaining the fineneſs and meaſure of the reſpective kinds of cloth at home, and the aſſigning certain ports, both here and in foreign parts, from which, and to which only, they ſhould be exported, and theſe were ſtiled *Staples*, which, according to the fluctuating politics of thoſe times, were frequently changed. From the ſame cauſe aroſe the privileges granted at different periods, with reſpect to the company of foreign merchants of the ſteelyard, and the Engliſh company of merchant adventurers, with reſtraints on the reſt of the ſubjects from exporting cloths, which, though they appear to modern times ſtrange, and utterly incompatible with the public intereſt, were not ſo conſidered in the ages when they were eſtabliſhed. In fact, however, very great exportations were made, which could not but be very advantageous to the nation, and, at the ſame time, the wealth of theſe corporations enabled them to make great loans, and to be in other reſpects very ſerviceable to government, which, generally ſpeaking, protected them againſt thoſe who complained of their monopolies. But in proceſs of time, as commerce became better underſtood, and a ſpirit of freedom gradually prevailed, the firſt of theſe companies gave way, though the latter ſtill maintained its ground, as being compoſed of Engliſh merchants, whoſe monopoly was viewed with leſs envy than that of aliens, and whoſe great riches gave them extenſive influence, and procured them conſiderable ſupport.

In the glorious reign of Elizabeth, many wiſe laws were enacted in favour of this important manufacture, and many new channels opened, by which, in time, the exportation of woollen cloths was increaſed to a million and a half annually. It does not however appear that there was any prohibition by law againſt the exporting of wool until the ſucceeding reign, when it was forbidden by proclamation, and many ſtatutes were from time to time made, for regulating commerce in wool, the the general effect of which will be noticed below.

The Britiſh iſlands poſſeſs great natural advantages in reſpect both to this valuable material and its manufacture, and ſuch

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as in regard to either cannot be taken from us. For we have ſheep of very different ſizes, and their wool is alſo of very different qualities, yet all are ſerviceable to ſome purpoſe or other, and conſequently all of ſome, though not of the ſame worth. The Spaniſh wools which we import, are only thoſe of their firſt and fineſt ſort, ſince we have enough of our own, equal, if not ſuperior to the reſt; and thoſe fine Spaniſh wools are equally neceſſary, for the uſes to which we apply them, to the French, the Dutch, and all other nations. We have been able therefore to enter into every branch of the cloth and ſtuff manufactures, known in our ſtatute books by the name of old and new draperies, and to carry them to the higheſt perfection. Beſides entering into the fabric of theſe, wool is employed in a vaſt variety of ways, in the making of caps, gloves, ſtockings, and a vaſt number of other articles, ſo that a mere liſt of them, and of thoſe to whom they give ſubſiſtence, would form a conſiderable treatiſe. A prodigious multitude of artiſans is employed in them, including perſons of all ages and ſexes, forming a moſt extenſive ſource of benefit to the whole community.

The principal manufacture of woollen cloth and kerſeymere in England is carried on in the county of York; at Norwich are extenſive eſtabliſhments for the making of ſtuffs, or woollen textures of a lighter compoſition; in Eſſex are made baizes, and various other articles; flannels are produced in Shropſhire and Wales; and in many parts of the kingdom, all theſe manufactures are alſo carried on. There are beſides many eſtabliſhments for making of carpets which are brought to great perfection.

The following eſtimates of the number of packs of wool (of 240 pounds each), and of the value of the broad and narrow cloths, together with the ſuppoſed amount of the other branches of the woollen manufacture in the Weſt-riding of Yorkſhire, and alſo in the whole kingdom, in the year 1799, are taken from the evidence given by ſeveral manufacturers to a committee of the houſe of commons in April 1800:

	£
72,734 packs, average value 11*l.* or total 800,074*l.* made 272,755 pieces broad, of the eſtimated value of - -	3,795,157
30,028 packs, average value 14*l.* or total 420,392*l.* made 180,168 pieces narrow, average value 6*l.* - -	1,081,008
Total value of broad and narrow cloths	4,876,165
Blankets and other goods (apparently including kerſeymeres) ſuppoſed above -	1,600,000
Carried forward	6,476,165

	£
Brought over	6,476,165
Stuffs, or worſted goods, ſuppoſed to amount to - - - -	1,400,000
The whole woollen goods made in the riding being thus eſtimated at - -	7,876,165
Some of the ſame gentlemen eſtimated the quantity of wool annually produced from 28,800,000 ſheep, the ſuppoſed ſtock in the kingdom, to be 600,000 packs, for which they aſſumed the medium value of 11*l.* per pack, the whole being -	6,600,000
The value is increaſed in the manufacture, from double to nine-fold: aſſuming three-fold as an average, the total value of woollen goods manufactured in the whole kingdom is - - -	19,800,000

In the year 1782, it was eſtimated at 14,000,000 *l.* and in 1791 at 19,900,000 *l.*

This vaſt manufacture is ſuppoſed to give employment to three millions of men, women, boys and girls, notwithſtanding the decreaſe of the quantity of wool, and the great abridgment of labour by the uſe of machinery, which, in the various proceſſes previous to the weaving, was ſtated by one manufacturer to accompliſh by the hands of 35 perſons the work, which about the year 1785 required the labour of 1,634 perſons. The capital veſted in machinery, and buildings appropriated to the woollen manufacture in various parts of the country, was ſuppoſed to be about 6,000,000 *l.* It is evident that the foreign demand for woollen manufactures has lately extended beyond the power of the country to ſupply it: for many more orders have been ſent to the manufacturers than they could poſſibly find wool to execute. The increaſed demand may be aſcribed, partly to the failure of ſome manufacturers on the continent, occaſioned by political convulſions, and partly to the augmentation of the military eſtabliſhments of every country in Europe. The deficiency of wool is imputed to the increaſe of incloſures for the purpoſe of raiſing corn for the ſubſiſtence of the increaſed number of people in the country and its foreign dependencies, and the unprecedented number of conſumers in the army and navy. In addition to all the wool produced in the country, the importation of Spaniſh and other fleeces has, in ſome years, exceeded five millions of pounds weight.

Laws. So vigilant has the legiſlature been in its endeavours to protect this moſt valuable branch of commerce, that many ſtatutes have been enacted for regulating the manufacture in all its proceſſes, applying diſtinctly to the winding of wool, to the cards

cards for manufacturing it, to the prevention of deceit in making cloth, and to the fulling, dyeing, ſtretching and dreſſing of cloth, with particular regulations for particular ſpecies and places.

For the *meaſuring of cloth*, the ſtatutes generally provide that the yard ſhall conſiſt of a ſtandard yard, and the breadth of a man's thumb beſides; or 37 inches in the whole. In every pariſh and hamlet where cloths are made, two juſtices (and in corporations, the mayor, together with one juſtice of the ſhire next adjoining) ſhall, once a year, or oftener, call before them, by precept or otherwiſe, two, four, ſix, eight or more, of the moſt honeſt, diſcreet, and able men of ſuch place, and appoint them overſeers for a year, or ſix months, or ſhorter time; and ſhall take them ſworn, and bound in recognizance of 40 *l.* each, to do their beſt endeavour, by all lawful ways and means, to ſee the ſtatutes obſerved, relating to the regulation of cloth. And the ſaid overſeers, or two of them, ſhall once a month at leaſt, or ſo often as need ſhall require, go into the houſes and rooms where the cloth ſhall be, and ſearch, and try the ſame, by water, weight, or any other way. And if any ſhall withhold cloth, or deny ſearch, he ſhall, on conviction at the ſeſſions, forfeit for the firſt offence 10 *l.* for the ſecond 20 *l.* for the third, being convicted by verdict and two witneſſes, he ſhall ſtand upon the pillory in the next market town.

And by the 4 Ja. *c.* 1. the ſeveral ſorts of cloth ſhall be in length and breadth at the water, when thoroughly wet, and in weight, when ſcoured, thicked, milled and fully dried, as follows:

	Yards long.	Quarters broad.	Pounds weight.
Long coloured broad cloth -	30 to 34	6½	86
Long *Worceſter* -	30 to 33	7	78
Long plunkets, azures, blues, and long whites	29 to 32	6½	80
Sorting cloths with a blue ſelvedge -	23 to 26	6	64
Fine *ſhort Suffolks* -	23 to 26	6½	64
Handwarps -	29 to 32	7	76
Broad plunkets, azures, blues, and other broad coloured	26 to 23	6½	68
Coloured ſhort -	23 to 56	6½	66
Half pieces of the ſame called dozens, in proportion.			
Broad liſted white and reds -	26 to 28	6½	64
Narrow liſted whites - -	26 to 28	6½	61
Narrow liſted reds - -	26 to 28	6½	60
Fine cloth with plain liſts -	29 to 32	6½	72
Cloths having ſtopt liſts -	30 to 33	7	78

Broads,

	Yards long.	Quarters broad.	Pounds weight.
Broads, called *Taunton*, *Bridgewaters*, and *Dunſters* - -	12 to 13	7	30
Narrow ditto -	24 to 25	4	30
Half cloth in proportion.			
Devonſhire kerſeys, called dozens	12 to 13		13
Check kerſeys, ſtraits and plain greys -	17 to 18	4	24
Ordinary Peniſtones, or foreſt whites -	12 to 13	5½	28
Sorting Peniſtones	13 to 14	6½	35
Kerſeys, called waſhers, or waſh whites half thicked	17 to 18		17
The ſame quarter thicked	18 to 19		17

Ordinary kerſey ſhould not exceed 24 yards in length, and muſt weigh one pound and three ounces a yard: ſorting kerſey may not exceed 24 yards in length, and ſhall weigh one pound three ounces and a half for every yard. Frizes and ruggs ſhall be from 35 to 37 yards long, three quarters of a yard within a nail broad, and 44 pounds weight. For the enforcement of theſe regulations there are penalties of various amount.

Woolcombers, having ſerved an apprenticeſhip, are impowered by 25 Geo. III. *c.* 124, to exerciſe that, or any other trade or buſineſs they are apt and able for, in any town or place, without moleſtation, and are not removeable to their place of ſettlement, until they become actually chargeable.

Againſt the *exportation of wool* and the importation of foreign woollen cloth, numerous ſtatutes have been enacted, ſome which are fallen into diſuſe, making offences felony; others impoſing heavy penalties on actions in themſelves far from criminal. On theſe laws, after enumerating them, Dr. Adam Smith makes the following reflections. "Our woollen manufacturers, in order to juſtify their demand of ſuch extraordinary reſtrictions and regulations, confidently aſſerted, that Engliſh wool was of a peculiar quality, ſuperior to that of any other country; that the wool of other countries could not, without ſome mixture of it, be wrought up into any tolerable manufacture; that fine cloth could not be made without it; that England therefore, if the exportation of it could be totally prevented, could monopolize to herſelf almoſt the whole woollen trade of the world; and thus, having no rivals, could ſell at what price ſhe pleaſed, and in a ſhort time acquire the moſt incredible degree of wealth by the moſt advantageous balance of trade. This doctrine, like moſt other doctrines which are confidently aſſerted by any conſiderable number of people, was, and ſtill continues to be, moſt implicitly believed by a much greater number; by almoſt

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all thoſe who are either unacquainted with the woollen trade, or who have not made particular inquiries. It is, however, ſo perfectly falſe, that Engliſh wool is in any reſpect neceſſary for the making of fine cloth, that it is altogether unfit for it. Fine cloth is made altogether of Spaniſh wool. Engliſh wool cannot be even ſo mixed with Spaniſh wool as to enter into the compoſition without ſpoiling and degrading, in ſome degree, the fabric of the cloth. The effect of theſe regulations has been to depreſs the price of Engliſh wool, not only below what it naturally would be in the preſent times, but very much below what it actually was in the time of Edward III. The price of Scots wool, when in conſequence of the union it became ſubject to the ſame regulations, is ſaid to have fallen about one half. It is obſerved by the very accurate and intelligent author of the Memoirs of Wool, the reverend Mr. John Smith, that the price of the beſt Engliſh wool in England is generally below what wool of a very inferior quality commonly ſells for in the market at Amſterdam. To depreſs the price of this commodity below what may be called its natural and proper price, was the avowed purpoſe of thoſe regulations; and there ſeems to be no doubt of their having produced the effect that was expected from them. This reduction of price, it may perhaps be thought, by diſcouraging the growing of wool, muſt have reduced very much the annual produce of that commodity, though not below what it formerly was, yet below what, in the preſent ſtate of things, it would probably have been, had it, in conſequence of an open and free market, been allowed to riſe to the natural and proper price. I am, however, diſpoſed to believe, that the quantity of the annual produce cannot have been much, though it may perhaps have been a little affected by theſe regulations. The growing of wool is not the chief purpoſe for which the ſheep farmer employs his induſtry and ſtock. He expects his profit, not ſo much from the price of the fleece, as from that of the carcaſe; and the average or ordinary price of the former. Whatever regulations tend to ſink the price, either of wool or of raw hides, below what it naturally would be, muſt, in an improved and cultivated country, have ſome tendency to raiſe the price of butchers' meat. The price both of the great and ſmall cattle, which are fed on improved and cultivated land, muſt be ſufficient to pay the rent which the landlord, and the profit which the farmer has reaſon to expect from improved and cultivated land. If it is not, they will ſoon ceaſe to feed them. Whatever part of this price, therefore, is not paid by the wool and the hide, muſt be paid by the carcaſe. The leſs there is paid for the one the more muſt be paid for the other. In what manner this price is to be divided upon the different parts of

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the beaſt, is indifferent to the landlords and farmers, provided it is all paid to them. In an improved and cultivated country, therefore, their intereſt as landlords and farmers cannot be much affected by ſuch regulations, though their intereſts as conſumers may, by the riſe in the price of proviſions. According to this reaſoning, therefore, this degradation in the price of wool is not likely, in an improved and cultivated country, to occaſion any diminution in the annual produce of that commodity; except ſo far as, by raiſing the price of mutton, it may ſomewhat diminiſh the demand for, and conſequently the production of, that particular ſpecies of butchers' meat. Its effect, however, even in this way, it is probable, is not very conſiderable. But though its effect upon the quantity of the annual produce may not have been very conſiderable, its effect upon the quality, it may perhaps be thought, muſt neceſſarily have been very great. The degradation in the quality of Engliſh wool, if not below what it was in former times, yet below what it naturally would have been in the preſent ſtate of improvement and cultivation, muſt have been, it may perhaps be ſuppoſed, very nearly in proportion to the degradation of price. As the quality depends upon the breed, upon the paſture, and upon the management and cleanlineſs of the ſheep, during the whole progreſs of the growth of the fleece, the attention to theſe circumſtances, it may naturally enough be imagined, can never be greater than in proportion to the recompence which the price of the fleece is likely to make for the labour and expenſe which that attention requires. It happens, however, that the goodneſs of the fleece depends, in a great meaſure, upon the health, growth, and bulk of the animal; the ſame attention which is neceſſary for the improvement of the carcaſe is, in ſome reſpects, ſufficient for that of the fleece. Notwithſtanding the degradation of price, Engliſh wool is ſaid to have been improved conſiderably during the courſe even of the preſent century. The improvement might perhaps have been greater if the price had been better; but the lowneſs of price, though it may have obſtructed, yet certainly it has not altogether prevented that improvement. The violence of theſe regulations, therefore, ſeems to have affected neither the quantity nor the quality of the annual produce of wool ſo much as it might have been expected to do (though I think it probable that it may have affected the latter a good deal more than the former); and the intereſt of the growers of wool, though it muſt have been hurt in ſome degree, ſeems, upon the whole, to have been much leſs hurt than could well have been imagined. Theſe conſiderations, however, will not juſtify the abſolute prohibition of the exportation of wool. But they will fully juſtify the impoſition of a conſider-

able tax upon that exportation. To hurt in any degree the intereſt of any one order of citizens, for no other purpoſe but to promote that of ſome other, is evidently contrary to that juſtice and equality of treatment which the ſovereign owes to all the different orders of his ſubjects. But the prohibition certainly hurts, in ſome degree, the intereſt of the growers of wool, for no other purpoſe but to promote that of the manufacturers. Every different order of citizens is bound to contribute to the ſupport of the ſovereign or commonwealth. A tax of five, or even of ten ſhillings upon the exportation of every tod of wool, would produce a very conſiderable revenue to the ſovereign. It would hurt the intereſts of the growers ſomewhat leſs than the prohibition, becauſe it would not probably lower the price of wool quite ſo much. It would afford a ſufficient advantage to the manufacturer, becauſe, though he might not buy his wool altogether ſo cheap as under the prohibition, he would ſtill buy it at leaſt five or ten ſhillings cheaper than any foreign manufacturer could buy it, beſides ſaving the freight and inſurance, which the other would be obliged to pay. It is ſcarcely poſſible to deviſe a tax which could produce any conſiderable revenue to the ſovereign, and at the ſame time occaſion ſo little inconveniency to any body. The prohibition, notwithſtanding all the penalties which guard it, does not prevent the exportation of wool. It is exported, it is well known, in great quantities. The great difference between the price in the home, and that in the foreign market, preſents ſuch a temptation to ſmuggling, that all the rigour of the law cannot prevent it. This illegal exportation is advantageous to nobody but the ſmuggler. A legal exportation, ſubject to a tax, by affording a revenue to the ſovereign, and thereby ſaving the impoſition of ſome other, perhaps, more burdenſome and inconvenient taxes, might prove advantageous to all the different ſubjects of the ſtate.

Cotton. The manufacture of cotton, formerly of little account, is now among the moſt productive articles brought into uſe by the ingenuity and induſtry of Britiſh artiſts. The great advantages gained by Great Britain in this particular are owing to the machinery employed, reſpecting which, the following details are afforded by Mr. Macpherſon. In the early part of the eighteenth century, an engine for ſpinning cotton was invented by Mr. Paul, with the aſſiſtance of ſome others in London, who having obtained a patent, made trial of it at Nottingham and elſewhere, to the great loſs of all concerned. Other ſchemes for ſpinning cotton by machinery have ſince been tried, and proved equally abortive. About the year 1767 the diſcovery of this great deſideratum in mechanics and manufacture was

attempted by three different perſons. The firſt, I believe, was Mr. Hargrave, of Blackwell in Lancaſhire, who conſtructed an engine capable of ſpinning 20 or 30 threads of cotton yarn fit for fuſtians; but his machinery being deſtroyed by popular tumult, he removed to Nottingham, where his patent right was overthrown by an aſſociation formed againſt him; and he died in want. Mr. Hayes invented a ſpinning engine and cylindrical carding engines, but never brought them to perfection. Mr. Arkwright, for whom the accompliſhment of this great object was reſerved, after many experiments, finiſhed his firſt engine in the year 1768; and in the following year he took out a patent. He ſtill, however, continued to ſtudy new improvements upon his invention; and in the year 1775, having brought his original machinery to a greater degree of perfection, and having alſo invented machines for preparing the cotton for ſpinning, he obtained a freſh patent for his new invention. Hitherto he and his partners had reaped no profits from the undertaking; but now, proper buildings being erected, at the expenſe of 30,000*l.* and the machinery being made capable to be put in motion by the ſtrength of cattle, water, ſteam, or any other regular moving power, it began, notwithſtanding ſome loſſes from riots, excited by envy or ignorant apprehenſion, to be productive to the proprietors, and an object of great importance to the whole nation.

Manufacturers and other men of property now wiſhed to participate the benefit of Arkwright's invention; and ſeveral ſpinning mills were ſoon erected in various parts of the country, the proprietors of which contracted to pay him a certain annual rent for every ſpindle contained in their machinery. Several ſpinning mills, eſtabliſhed in Lancaſhire, the weſt part of Scotland, and elſewhere, together with the general uſe of the jennies (engines for ſpinning the woof or weft), produced ſuch an abridgment of labour, and improvement in the fabric, the yarn being ſpun upon truer principles than if done by the hand, that the prices of the goods were much reduced, and conſequently the Britiſh manufactures of cotton goods of all kinds were greatly extended; and many thouſands of people, including women and children of both ſexes, were now inſtructed in various operations of the buſineſs.

In the years 1782 and 1783 Mr. Arkwright petitioned the houſe of commons, in conſideration of the great loſſes and expenſes incurred before his invention had begun to bring him any emolument, during which term his patent was running out, to extend the duration of his excluſive privilege for the original machinery, ſo as it might expire along with the term granted by his ſecond patent. But the object being now of ſuch magnitude

nitude and eſtabliſhed importance, counter petitions came in from all quarters; and he was moreover attacked upon points of law, his antagoniſts alleging, that he was not the inventor of the preparing machine; in anſwer to which Mr. Arkwright argued that a pirate, who ſtole the invention from another, would have appeared at once with his machinery in a perfect ſtate; whereas it was well known, that he was many years employed in experiments, before he brought it to the degree of perfection it had now attained. After long litigation the cauſe was determined in the Court of Common Pleas (18th February 1785) in favour of Mr. Arkwright, and in the Court of King's Bench (27th June 1785) againſt him. And as his firſt patent expired about the ſame time, the buſineſs became open to all.

It is proper to obſerve, that at leaſt four ſpinning mills were already erected in Ireland; and two were eſtabliſhed near Rouen in France under the able direction of Mr. Holker, an Engliſh manufacturer, who, with his partners, was patroniſed and aſſiſted by the government. It was not long before Arkwright's machinery was even tranſported acroſs the Atlantic, and a ſpinning mill erected in Philadelphia.

Mr. Arkwright continued the buſineſs after he was deprived of the monopoly, and, probably, with ſome advantages over his competitors, derived from his experience and eſtabliſhed plan of conducting the buſineſs. If he made a great fortune, he certainly deſerved it: for the advantages he conferred upon the nation were infinitely greater than thoſe he acquired for himſelf, and far more ſolid and durable than a hundred conqueſts. Inſtead of depriving the working poor of employment by his great abridgment of labour, that very abridgment has created a vaſt deal of employment for more hands than were formerly employed: and it was computed, that half a million of people were this year employed in the cotton manufactures of Lancaſhire, Cheſhire, Derby, Nottingham, and Leiceſter. That computation was perhaps exaggerated: but the numbers muſt have been very great, as we find by the report of the committee of the houſe of commons this ſame year on the buſineſs of the commercial intercourſe with Ireland, that 6800 were employed by Mr. Peele, ſeveral thouſands by Mr. Smith, and numbers proportionally great by other manufacturers of cotton. How many more, may we ſuppoſe, are now ſupported by the cotton manufacture in its vaſtly extended ſtate? For that extenſion Great Britain is indebted to the ingenuity and perſevering patience of an originally obſcure individual. And it is but juſtice to the memory of Sir Richard Arkwright * to ſay, that he was

* He was knighted in the year 1786, and died at his ſeat in Derbyſhire in 1792.

unqueſtionably one of the greateſt friends to the manufacturing and commercial intereſts of this country, and to the intereſt of the cotton planters in almoſt all parts of the world that ever exiſted; and that his name ought to be tranſmitted to future ages along with thoſe of the moſt diſtinguiſhed real benefactors of mankind.

The manufacture of calicoes, which was begun in Lancaſhire in 1772, was in 1785 pretty generally eſtabliſhed in ſeveral parts of England and Scotland. The manufacture of muſlins in England was begun in 1781, and was rapidly increaſing. In 1783 there were above a thouſand looms ſet up in Glaſgow for that moſt beneficial article, in which the ſkill and labour of the mechanic raiſe the raw material to twenty times its value, when imported. Bengal, which for ſome thouſand years ſtood unequalled in the fabric of muſlins, figured calicoes, and other fine cotton goods, is rivalled in ſeveral parts of Great Britain; and now, thoſe articles which uſed to drain vaſt ſums of money out of this country, help to ſwell the profitable balance of Britiſh commerce.

The progreſs of the Iriſh in the ſame line of induſtry muſt not be overlooked, and the laudable and ſpirited exertions of Captain Robert Brooke deſerve particular notice. In 1780 that gentleman eſtabliſhed a cotton manufacture on his lands ſituated on the great canal about eighteen miles weſt from Dublin. In 1782 the government of Ireland, underſtanding that ſome of the manufacturers of Mancheſter intended to remove to America, and carry their machinery with them, found means to perſuade them to go to Ireland, and gave Captain Brooke about 3,000 *l.* for ſettling them in houſes on his lands: and they afterwards advanced him 32,000*l.* upon intereſt and ſecurity, that he might give employment to a great number of weavers, who were then ſtarving and riotous for want of employment in Dublin, at his ſettlement, where, it was hoped, they would behave induſtriouſly and quietly, being at a diſtance from the contagion of the metropolis. By means of theſe, and other acquiſitions of inhabitants, the manufacturing village, which was called by the auſpicious name of Proſperous, conſiſted of ſeveral hundred houſes, erected on a ſpot, where in 1780 there ſtood one ſingle hut; and the manufacture gave employment to about three thouſand people, men, women, and children.

Beſides Captain Brooke's, which was the principal, there are ſeveral other manufactures of cotton eſtabliſhed in various parts of Ireland in the laſt three or four years by the ſpirited exertions of individuals, and the liberal encouragement of the parliament.

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The rapid increaſe in the number of ſpinning engines, which took place in conſequence of the expiration of Arkwright's patent, forms a new era, not only in manufactures and commerce, but alſo in the dreſs of both ſexes. The common uſe of ſilk, if it were only to be worn while it retains its luſtre, is proper only for ladies of ample fortune. And yet women of almoſt all ranks affected to wear it; and many in the lower claſſes of the middle ranks of ſociety diſtreſſed their huſbands, parents, and brothers, to procure that expenſive finery. Neither was a handſome cotton gown attainable by women in humble circumſtances; and thence the cottons were mixed with linen yarn to reduce their price; but now cotton yarn is cheaper than linen yarn; and cotton goods are much uſed in lieu of cambrics, lawns, and other expenſive fabrics of flax; and they have almoſt totally ſuperſeded the ſilks. Women of all ranks, from the higheſt to the loweſt, are clothed in Britiſh manufactures of cotton, from the muſlin cap on the crown of the head to the cotton ſtocking under the ſole of the foot. The ingenuity of the calico printers has kept pace with that of the weavers and others concerned in the preceding ſtages of the manufacture, and produced patterns of printed goods, which for elegance of drawing exceed every thing that ever was imported, and for durability of colour generally ſtand the waſhing ſo well, as to appear freſh and new every time they are cleanſed, and give an air of neatneſs and cleanlineſs to the wearer beyond the elegance of ſilk in the firſt freſhneſs of its tranſitory luſtre. But even the moſt ſplendid prints are excelled by the ſuperior beauty and virgin purity of the muſlins, the growth and the manufacture of the Britiſh dominions.

With the gentlemen, cotton ſtuffs for waiſtcoats have almoſt ſuperſeded woollen cloths, and ſilk ſtuffs: and they have the advantage, like the ladies' gowns, of having a new and freſh appearance every time they are waſhed. Cotton ſtockings have alſo become very general.

The art of *printing on linen and calico* appears to have been introduced into England in 1676, and was ſpeedily brought to conſiderable perfection. In 1782, a petition having been preſented to parliament by the calico printers, wherein they ſet forth, that the Eaſt India Company had taken advantage of the improvements, introduced into their buſineſs ſome years ago, in printing upon engraved plates of copper and metals, by ſending out plates and workmen to their ſettlements in India, where the low price of labour enabled them to print their calicoes much cheaper than the petitioners were able to do; and that great quantities of ſuch printed goods were imported, and

it, being next to impoſſible to diſtinguiſh them from Britiſh printed goods, the petitioners were in danger of being ruined, and the trade and revenue of the kingdom were in danger of being greatly injured. It was thereupon enacted, that whoever ſhould entice any workman employed in printing calicoes, cottons, muſlins, or linens, or in making blocks, plates, or utenſils, for ſuch manufacture, to go beyond the ſea, ſhould be puniſhed by a fine of 500 *l.* and alſo be impriſoned for twelve months; and, in caſe of a ſecond offence, the fine and impriſonment ſhould be doubled. Any perſons found guilty of exporting blocks, plates or utenſils, for the printing buſineſs, is alſo liable to a fine of 500 *l.*; and commanders of veſſels, knowingly ſuffering ſuch blocks, &c. to be received on board, are ſubjected to a penalty of 100 *l.*

No account being kept in either part of the united kingdom of the manufacture of cotton, except the calicoes and muſlins which are printed, the quantity of which is known with certainty by means of the duty paid upon them, the amount in general can only be aſcertained by conjecture, founded upon ſuch documents as can be obtained. The number of yards of printed calicoes and muſlins in 1800 was 33,502,399; the amount of duties on them 511,582*l.* 7*s.* 8*d.* If we follow, Mr. Macpherſon adds, the calculation aſſumed in an eſtimate laid before a committee of the houſe of commons, that the duty is one tenth of the value, we may eſtimate the price of the Britiſh calicoes and muſlins printed in England and Wales in 1800 at - - - - - £4,184,365

The quantity of white calicoes and muſlins, made in England and Wales, is probably much greater than that of the printed; and though they do not incur the expenſe of printing and duty, yet, as a greater proportion of them are fine goods, the value of them is perhaps rather above - 3,000,000

There are many other fabrics of cotton of which it ſeems impoſſible to make any eſtimate.

The annual export of Britiſh cotton manufactures from all the ports of Great Britain, on the average of three years, 1797—1799, was - 4,175,236

Theſe eſtimates, or conjectures, he apprehends, conſtitute all the attainable materials for illuſtrating the ſtate of this great and important manufacture, and, after uſing every endeavour to obtain a more ſatisfactory account, he adopts the opinion conveyed in a letter from a gentleman, at the head of ſome of the greateſt manufacturing eſtabliſhments in the kingdom, that the object is beyond the reach of individual inveſtigation, and, unleſs government

government ſhall order an inquiry, it can only be eſtimated by the importation of cotton, which is for the moſt part manufactured at home. The quantity of cotton of all kinds imported during 1800, in England was 42,806,507 pounds; in Scotland 13,204,225 pounds; total 56,010,732 pounds.

Perhaps the manufacture in Scotland, as being in a narrower field, is more within the reach of individual obſervation than that of England. He therefore ſubmits to the reader, as being apparently a near approximation to the truth, the following

Eſtimate of the ſtate of the cotton manufacture in Scotland, made up in the year 1796, at Glaſgow, the centre of the principal commerce and manufactures of that kingdom.

			£
Thirty-nine water mills, which coſt for machinery and buildings 10,000*l.* each			390,000
And work	124,800 ſpindles.		
One thouſand two hundred common jennies, 84 ſp. each	100,800	6 each	7,200
Six hundred mule jennies, 144 ſp. each	86,400	30 each	18,000
Total, working by day and night	312,000 ſpindles.		
Building for the jennies coſt			75,000
Capital inveſted in machinery and buildings			490,200
The yarn annually ſpun is valued at			1,256,412
The cotton, 4,629,043 lbs.; average value 2*s.*			462,904
The people employed, are eſtimated at 25,000 of both ſexes, young and old, but the greateſt number under 15 years of age, whoſe labour, aided by machinery, thus improves the value of the raw material in the firſt ſtage of manufacture			793,508
From which deduct wages, eſtimated at			500,000
And there remains a compenſation for the coſt and wear and tear of the machinery, and proprietors profits, the ſum of			293,508

The annual value of calicoes and muſlins, now deſervedly deemed *the ſtaple of Scotland*, when finiſhed, including the exciſe duty on a part of them which are printed, and the coſt

of tambouring and needle-work on about a third part of them, was then eſtimated at - - - £ 3,108,549
The value of the cotton yarn, as above 1,256,412
To which add for yarn got from England 520,000
1,776,412
The wages of weavers, tambourers, needle workers, the charges, the profits of the manufacturers, and the revenue paid to government, thus amounted to - - - - 1,332,137
Which great ſum is produced by capital, ingenuity, management, and labour, in the ſubſequent ſtages of the buſineſs.
The cotton manufacture in Scotland employs 38,815 weavers,
For winding warp and weft - - 12,938 women,
And, ſuppoſing one third part of the muſlin adorned with tambouring or needle work 105,000 women, and girls, moſtly children.
Beſides thoſe employed in the ſpinning branch, 25,000 perſons,

Hence it appears that - - 181,753 perſons derive their immediate ſubſiſtence from the cotton manufacture in Scotland, and alſo a proportional number in England employed in producing yarn to the value of 520,000*l.*; beſides the innumerable people of all claſſes concerned in providing neceſſaries and accommodations of every kind for that great multitude, and in conſtructing and repairing the machinery and buildings; and the cultivators of the cotton in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies, ſeamen, merchants, &c. who are all wholly or partly ſupported by this moſt beneficial manufacture, whereby the cotton is raiſed, taking the whole manufacture together, to be about ſeven times the value it was of when imported.

Such are the bleſſings of theſe truly valuable eſtabliſhments, which unite individual intereſt and national advantage with the trueſt and beſt of charities; that of rendering the poor uſeful to the community and to themſelves, and placing them above the acceptance of gratuitous ſupport, the premium of indolence, and poiſon of induſtry, which debaſes the ſpirits of thoſe whom it cannot permanently feed.

Linen. The riſe and progreſs of the linen manufacture in the Britiſh dominions is traced by Mr. Oddy, who, after mentioning its riſe and value among the ancients, proceeds. From Italy, the linen manufacture went to France, from thence to Flanders, where it made a ſtand; afterwards to Holland; from Flanders we received it, as well as the Germans; and it has ſpread at a very late period from thence to the eaſt and northern parts of Europe. In encouraging the woollen manufacture at an early period, ſome attention was paid to that of linen.

linen. Henry III. in the 37th year of his reign, ordered the ſheriffs of Wilts and Suſſex to buy, for his wardrobe at Weſtminſter, one thouſand ells of fine linen, made in each of their reſpective counties. When Cardinal Wolſey's goods were ſeized by Henry VIII. amongſt other articles were found one thouſand pieces of fine Holland linen; a proof that the manufacture was not carried to much perfection in this country; and, by the enormous proviſion of it, that it was not readily to be had; for, in the inventory, we do not find woollen cloth, that being a manufacture eſtabliſhed here long before; and probably that could be purchaſed when wanted. The reign of James I. was the firſt period for encouraging the linen manufacture by authority; from that time it was left to itſelf till 1696, when an act paſſed which may be ſaid to have been the foundation act for encouraging the manufacture of linens in Ireland. Hemp and flax the growth, and ſail-cloth the manufacture, of that kingdom, were all imported into England, duty free; and ſo far had the manufacturing of ſail-cloth increaſed by this time, that the Engliſh manufacture was allowed to be exported duty free. The linen manufacture in Ireland was farther promoted by the French proteſtant refugees, and a ſort of a compact made in 1698, when the Engliſh parliament addreſſed his majeſty to diſcourage the woollen manufacture in Ireland, and to encourage that of the linen. An act paſſed in 1704, by which Iriſh linens were allowed to be exported from any port in Ireland directly to the Britiſh plantations.

Sir William Temple, a ſtrenuous advocate at an early period for promoting the Iriſh linen manufacture, foretold the great improvement in 1681; and with ſome gallantry made the following obſervations; "No women are apter to ſpin linen "thread well than the Iriſh, who, labouring little in any kind "with their hands, have their fingers more ſupple and ſoft "than other women of the poor condition amongſt us. And "this may certainly be advanced and improved into a great "manufacture of linen, ſo as to beat down the trade both of "France and Holland, and draw much of the money which "goes from England to thoſe parts upon this occaſion into the "hands of his majeſty's ſubjects of Ireland, without croſſing "any intereſt of trade in England, for, beſide what has been "ſaid of flax and ſpinning in Ireland, its climate is proper for "whitening, both by the frequent brooks, and alſo of winds, in "that country."

The encouragement given in England to the Iriſh linen manufacture was moſt properly ſeconded by the Iriſh parliament; and, to promote the linen manufacture, from its firſt encouragement in 1696 to 1750, it is calculated that no leſs than half a million ſterling was expended, which produced an immenſe

menſe increaſe in the manufacture. About the year 1691, it was ſuppoſed that Ireland did not export in yarn and linens to the amount of ſix thouſand pounds altogether; but in 1751 the export had advanced to 893,000 *l.* Moderate as this quantity appears at the preſent day, it was found ſufficient to create alarm among all the foreign linen manufacturing countries at that time; and in 1778, it exceeded 1,400,000 *l.* In 1780, in conſequence of the very able report of the Board of Trade, drawn up, and laid before the right honourable the lords of the committee of council, appointed to conſider the Iriſh bills, many judicious acts of parliament were made to grant bounties, regulate and encourage every object tending to increaſe the linen manufacture of Ireland, which has been ſupported and protected by the right honourable John Forſter, who may be juſtly termed the guardian of the linen manufacture of Ireland. Under his auſpices the linen trade of Ireland was carried to a very high pitch, ſo that in the year ending the 5th of January 1805, the quantity exported was, 42,988,621 yards, making, at 1*s.* 3*d.* per yard, 2,686,788 *l.*

Scotland has not the advantage of ſoil, climate, nor the population of Ireland, but certainly excels it in induſtry and application; a ſtronger proof cannot be adduced, than that whilſt Ireland was receiving extenſive pecuniary aid to promote her linen manufacture, that of Scotland had got to ſo low an ebb that the annual convention held at Edinburgh, in July 1725, took it into their ſerious conſideration, and, in the following year, ſeveral ſchemes and propoſals for encouraging their fiſheries and manufactures were reſolved upon, one of which was to petition his Majeſty. The king, in return, was pleaſed to cauſe the Lord Advocate to lay before the convention, in July 1726, his Majeſty's direction, ſtating the intereſt which his Majeſty took in their ſolicitude to promote the general intereſts of the country. A board of truſtees, in 1727, was eſtabliſhed for promoting the linen manufacture and extending the fiſheries of Scotland, according to an act of parliament. The very ſmall pecuniary aid allowed was amply compenſated by the laudable economy and judicious management of that board, which produced the moſt happy and beneficial effects in a ſhort period; the produce of the manufacture amounting, in 1730, to 131,262 *l.* A ſum of only 1500 *l.* per annum was diſtributed in bounties for raiſing flax. Two thouſand acres were ſown in 1733, which had an effect of encouraging the linen manufacture; ſo that, after 1734, the average quantity of ten years, manufactured for ſale, was near 4,800,000 yards. In 1747, it began to wear a new aſpect, ſo that it gradually increaſed, in conſequence of the patriotic attention of individuals, and the board, which is a proof what individual exertion and united endeavours

deavours can do in a country. Betwixt the years 1757 and 1772, 225,606*l.* or 14,100*l.* per annum, was paid by the Iriſh parliament to encourage the linen manufactures of Ireland, whilſt that of Scotland had but very limited means; never in any one year exceeding 3000*l.* for that object and promoting the fiſheries.

The eſtabliſhment of the Britiſh linen company, with a ſufficient capital, was a ſalutary meaſure, becauſe the needy manufacturer always found a market, which enabled him to keep his induſtry continually in activity; ſo that this linen manufacture gradually extended upon the whole, (with a little variation in ſome years,) till it has arrived to the extent we now find it, that is to ſay, in ſome years the quantity manufactured and exported for ſale, has exceeded 1,100,000*l.* The linen manufactures of Scotland are more particularly adapted for the Weſt-India market, and the falling off the laſt two years may partly be aſſigned to the precarious ſtate of the trade in that quarter, and other cauſes which I ſhall ſhortly mention. The Iriſh manufacture has increaſed, being rather a finer quality than the Scotch linen. With theſe limited means of encouragement, and the many diſadvantages Scotland labours under, not producing the raw material (as in Ireland) upon her own ſoil, ſhe becomes dependent upon a foreign ſupply, at all times precarious and often high in price. Under theſe circumſtances it is aſtoniſhing that it has riſen to ſuch an extent; nor can it be expected that Scotland can, from the nature of the ſoil, and the moderate extent of cultivation, raiſe the raw material in ſufficient quantities for her conſumption, it muſt either be raiſed in England or Ireland, or imported from abroad. When we have treated of the linen manufactures of Ireland and Scotland ſeparately, Mr. Oddy, proceeds, it will be expected likewiſe that we ſhould do ſo of England; but, in this branch, in the midſt of her woollen and other various manufactures of Ireland and Scotland, vaſt quantities from Ruſſia, Pruſſia, and Germany have been imported into Great Britain, or rather to England excluſively. The caſe ſeems to be, that in a wealthy country, where the value of money is low, as in England, it is not poſſible to enter into competition with labourers, who can live in cheap places, and do as much work as thoſe who live in dear ones. Spinning and knitting ſtockings by hand, and other things that may be done at the foot of a mountain in Scotland or Wales, cannot be done in the ſame manner and for the ſame price in London. It is not even thought an object of economy to employ ſpare time in ſuch ſort of labour.

Notwith-

Notwithſtanding the heavy duties laid on the importation of foreign linens, which certainly operate as a ſufficient bounty, beſides the one which is granted on exportation; ſtill we make no progreſs in this branch of manufacture in Great Britain: on the contrary, it is upon the decline, if we are to judge by the official value of Britiſh manufactured linens exported of late years; they having in 1798 and 1799 exceeded 1,100,000*l.* and in 1803, fallen to 561,310*l.* It may be ſaid, that the great falling off in the exportation of 1803, was owing to the equipping of our army, navy, and volunteers; it may partly be ſo, but nevertheleſs the linen manufacture is upon the decline in Great Britain; the principal cauſe may be attributed to the unprecedented rapid advance of the cotton manufacture; in which the capital, labour, and attention of the manufacturers are employed, encouraged by the faſhion of the times; ſtill, if we purſue that, we ought not to neglect, but cultivate the linen manufacture at the ſame time; it is a branch of which we cannot be deprived, whilſt that of cotton we may. It requires conſideration, whether the preſent advantage in the manufacturing of cotton will in the end compenſate for the loſs we may ſuſtain by neglecting the linen manufacture, but we ſhould ſecure both; the raw material of one we can raiſe within ourſelves, but not the other.

Beſides this, in a rich country, where capital abounds, buſineſs that can be carried on with little capital ſeldom thrives; wealthy people will not ſo generally veſt capital in a buſineſs like the linen, where they come in competition with poorer manufacturers, with ſingle looms of weavers working in their own houſes. If linen required dreſſing, dyeing, &c. like wool, or machinery like cotton, poor men could not do it, and then wealthy men would more generally enter into that trade.

Notwithſtanding we have the means of carrying on the linen manufacture to any extent, our importation of foreign linens is upon the increaſe. The importation of foreign linen is chiefly to England, the duty on which, in 1804, was 208,892*l.* 2*s.* 3*d.* and into Scotland only 7271*l.* 16*s.* 9*d.* from the latter kingdom the chief part if not all is re-exported by the weſtern ports. The above is the official value, which, upon the average of the laſt five years, amounts to 1,350,000*l.* England alone conſumes in foreign linen; but if we reckon the real money paid, or the firſt coſt, according to the exchange, it will fall little ſhort of three millions ſterling, an object of national conſideration indeed for an article we can ſo well produce within ourſelves. If we had no lands to raiſe the flax, hands to work it, nor mechanical facilities to ſpin the yarn, it would be excuſable to import linens; but when we have ſuch uncultivated large fertile tracts

on one hand, and a million of poor hands unemployed on the other, it is a national conſideration worthy the exertion of the landed intereſt, in a double fold degree, to bring their waſte lands into cultivation, to reduce the poors' rates, and encourage induſtry.

The linen manufacture is of the greateſt conſequence to this country, and one which ought more particularly to be cultivated; the great ſucceſs of the cotton trade makes the manufacturers overlook the advantages of purſuing that of linen, although they have in their favour, not only high duties on foreign linen imported, but bounties on the exportation of what they manufacture.

It has been mentioned before, and it is ſomewhat curious, that in the early part of our commercial intercourſe with Ruſſia, we exported to that country our coarſe linen cloths, and that we ſhould now import ſuch conſiderable quantities of linens from thence; this is turning the tables upon us, and ought to make us reflect ſeriouſly.

In Pruſſia, the linen manufacture has become one of the firſt importance in that kingdom, as well as throughout Germany; and for the uſe of manufacturers who will turn their attention to linen, a particular deſcription has been given of the German linens, ſpecifying the length, breadth, the marks, manner of making up, and the countries to which they are chiefly exported. Notwithſtanding the lower price of the raw materials and labour in thoſe countries compared with what it is in ours, ſtill the greater capital and length of credit would, in ordinary caſes, give us a decided preference; ſo that when we add to this, the abbreviation of labour by mechaniſm, now brought to perfection in this country, we have nothing to fear from foreign competition, if we are active, for we can underſell them. As we have got the complete monopoly of manufacturing our own ſail cloth, ſo as to export largely, the ſame ſucceſs may be expected in reſpect to linens in general, from which we might expect to derive ſo large a profit in induſtry, as 3,000,000 *l.* ſterling per annum.

The ſpinning of flax into linen yarn by machinery upon nearly the ſame principle as cotton, has been found to make the yarn more even, and equally ſtrong, as that ſpun by hand; already conſiderable quantities of cloth have been made from yarn ſpun in this manner; the cloth is found ſo excellent, that it cannot be diſtinguiſhed from the foreign they have imitated, excepting that it is better. The manufactures at Leeds and Darlington, and ſeveral other places, have ſo completely ſucceeded, that we may ſhortly expect to ſee them general throughout the country; therefore, thoſe who now embark in the manufacturing of linen,

will

will completely have eſtabliſhed their reputation, and ſecure the conſequent profit, by the time others ſee the advantage.

The woollen trade never would have flouriſhed in this country, had it not been in a moſt ſpecial manner encouraged and protected, and in particular by raiſing and preventing the exportation of the raw material. By what fatality is it then, that in this enlightened age, we neglect to do, or are ignorant of what was done in the remote times of Edward III.? Let us cultivate in abundance the material, and encourage the manufacture and application of machinery, and there is no doubt but that the linen trade will become amongſt one of the beſt in the kingdom.

Of all the manufactures that exiſt, none deſerves encouragement ſo much as the linen; the ſimplicity of the apparatus, and the ſmallneſs of the ſtock, make it a branch capable of being carried on, either by the poor, who are at preſent a burden on the public, or by others at ſpare times, when they would otherwiſe be idle; ſo that the whole will almoſt be clear gain, not as labour turned from another channel, but as labour ariſing from time that otherwiſe would not be occupied at all. If we conſider with how few manufactures this is the caſe, we ſhall the more readily and the more highly appreciate that of linen.

Silk. The manufacture of ſilk in England has fluctuated extremely, being dependent on faſhion, and never ſupported in any great degree by the benefits of an export trade, ſince the nations on the continent have rivalled and generally ſurpaſſed us in this article; yet when ſilk was much uſed in dreſs, eſpecially among females, great numbers of Britiſh artiſts were ſupported by fabricating it; they had long enjoyed great profits and conſiderable reputation, when, in 1685, their art was greatly improved by the refugees from France, who ſought in this country an aſylum againſt a moſt inhuman and injudicious perſecution. Of late, their trade has not been ſo flouriſhing, faſhion having induced the female part of the community to adopt the ſyſtem of wearing vegetable in preference to animal clothing; a ſyſtem which to Dr. Johnſon ſeemed ſo eſſential, as to make him, in a fit of ſportive zeal, imagine himſelf the poſſeſſor of a Seraglio.

Stockings. The introduction of ſtockings into England was not of very ancient date. The art of manufacturing them with knitting needles was learnt from Spain; the ſilk ſtockings ſaid to have been firſt worn by Henry VIII. and Edward VI. were imported, but thoſe preſented to Queen Elizabeth in 1561, were manufactured at home. In 1589, or according to ſome in 1600, William Lee, A. M. of St. John's College in Cambridge, invented an engine or ſteel loom, called the ſtocking frame, for knitting or weaving ſtockings. This was but twenty-eight

years after we had firſt learned from Spain the method of knitting them by wires or needles. Mr. Lee's invention has proved a conſiderable benefit to the ſtocking manufacture, by enabling England, in after-times, to export vaſt quantities of ſilk ſtockings to Italy, &c. where it ſeems, by Sir Joſiah Child's excellent Diſcourſes on Trade, publiſhed in the year 1670, they had not then got the uſe of the ſtocking frame, though little ſhort of a century after its invention. The trade of making ſtockings of ſilk, cotton, thread and worſted, continues to engage a great portion of induſtry, and to produce very large profits in many parts of the kingdom, and the frames are alſo employed in making pieces for breeches, pantaloons, and ſometimes waiſtcoats. As an article of exportation, ſtockings have long been in conſiderable demand, and the trade ſtill continues, although it is not conſidered as increaſing.

For prevention of frauds in the manufacture of ſtockings, by the act 6 Geo. III. all perſons found guilty of marking an untrue number of threads, were ſubjected to the loſs of the goods falſely marked, with a penalty of five pounds for every piece. And for protection of the property of manufacturers in the hoſiery branch, the retention or fraudulent ſale of their frames by their journeymen, and the deſtruction of them, or any mills or other machinery, or of any hoſiery work in the frames, were, by the 28th Geo. III. c. 85. made puniſhable by fine, impriſonment, and tranſportation.

Hats. The manufacture of hats is firſt noticed, as relating to England, in the fourteenth century, when the people of Flanders dealt largely in rabbit ſkins from England, which they are ſuppoſed to have made into hats. In a century afterward, 1463, however, the Engliſh nation had made ſuch proficiency in this fabric, that in a long liſt of articles, the importation of which was forbidden, hats were included. Afterwards the trade was progreſſively improved by the uſe of machinery, the ſkill of the French refugees, and the introduction of the beaver's inſtead of the rabbit's fur. In conſequence hats have long been an article of exportation to a large amount, and as all the materials with which they are made and coloured, and the hats themſelves worn in England are taxed, they produce a conſiderable ſum to the revenue. By 17 Geo. III. c. 50. the hatmakers were relieved from the hardſhips of an act of Elizabeth, and another of James I. whereby they were prohibited from employing any journeymen, who had not ſerved ſeven years as apprentices. And by the 24 Geo. III. ſeſſ. 2. c. 21. in order to encourage the manufacture of hats, the exportation of the ſkins or wool of hares and conies was prohibited, and the importation of Turkey goat's-hair was permitted free of any duty.

Leather.

LEATHER. The manufacture of leather extends to numerous articles of dreſs and uſe, and is in all its forms carried to a great extent, and a ſource of ample profit to Great Britain. It were an uſeleſs taſk to follow in detail all the commodities in which leather is employed, as ſhoes, boots, gloves, breeches, book-binding, trunks, carriages, harneſs, ſaddles, and many others. Whoever conſiders them in the moſt curſory manner, muſt be convinced of the vaſt extent and importance of this branch of commerce. It is alſo highly beneficial to the revenue, the duties on leather being under the care of the commiſſioners of exciſe, and numerous laws are paſſed for the prevention of frauds in this moſt uſeful material, of which a ſlight outline will be given.

By 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 66. and 41 Geo. III. c. 33. after a repeal of ſome reſtraining clauſes in former ſtatutes, it was enacted, that the mayor, bailiff, or other head-officer of any city, town corporate, borough or market town; or in other places, two magiſtrates, ſhall appoint ſome proper and convenient place for examining and inſpecting all the raw hides and ſkins of cattle, ſheep, horſes, and hogs, ſlaughtered or flayed within ſuch place, or within certain diſtances thereof, and ſhall appoint convenient days and hours for the inſpection of ſuch hides or ſkins in ſuch place; and cauſe notice to be put up in legible characters in ſome conſpicuous place, annually, or oftener if neceſſary, to appoint ſome perſon or perſons of competent ſkill to be inſpector or inſpectors of hides and ſkins within ſuch diſtricts; and alſo from time to time to ſupply ſuch vacancies as may ariſe. The inſpector takes an oath for the due execution of his office, and receives a fee for his trouble; that is, for the hide of every ox and other large animal inſpected, a halfpenny; for every calf, hog, or pig ſkin, a farthing; and for every ſcore of ſheep or lamb ſkins, three pence. And if any butcher or other perſon, or his ſervant, ſhall wilfully or negligently cut or gaſh any hide or ſkin ſo as to make the ſame leſs valuable; or ſhall flay the hide of any ox, bull, cow, heifer, ſteer, ſtirk, or calf, (more than two inches, 41 Geo. III. c. 53.) below the knee or gambrel, and ſhall be convicted, before one juſtice, upon the oath of any inſpector of hides, or any other witneſs, he ſhall forfeit, according to his offence, not more than five ſhillings, nor leſs than one ſhilling, or in caſes of lambs, &c. not more than ſix pence, nor leſs than three pence. And the inſpector is to provide two different ſtamps or marks, the one with the letter S. to denote good hides, the other with the letter D. to denote damaged hides; with the firſt of which he ſhall ſtamp, on or near the tail, every raw hide that is not damaged in the flaying; and with the other he ſhall ſtamp, on one of the fore ſhanks, every

every raw hide that is damaged in the flaying. And if any butcher or other perſon ſhall wilfully neglect to bring any raw hides by this act required to be ſtamped to the place appointed, within the hours preſcribed, or within ten days from the time of flaying the ſame, or ſhall remove or take away from ſuch place, any ſuch raw hide that has not been examined and marked by ſome inſpector, or ſome perſon authoriſed by him, and approved by a magiſtrate of the diſtrict, he ſhall forfeit not exceeding 5 *l.* nor leſs than 40 *s.* for every ſuch offence.

By 1 Jas. c. 22. No perſon ſhall be a tanner, but who has ſerved as an apprentice ſeven years, except the wife or ſuch ſon of a tanner as has uſed the trade for four years, or the ſon or daughter of a tanner, or ſuch perſon who ſhall marry ſuch wife or daughter, to whom he ſhall leave a tan-houſe and fats; on pain of forfeiting all leather by him tanned, or of which he ſhall receive any profit, or the value thereof. No tanner ſhall be a butcher, on pain of 6 *s.* 8 *d.* a day. No tanner ſhall be of any craft exerciſed in the cutting or working of leather; on pain of forfeiting the ſame or the value thereof. No perſon ſhall fell any oak trees, meet to be barked, where bark is worth 2 *s.* a cart-load over and above the charges of barking and pilling (except timber for houſes, ſhips, or mills) but between April 1 and June 30; on pain of forfeiting the ſame or double the value thereof. And the whole proceſs of tanning is minutely regulated.

By the ſame ſtatute, no currier ſhall be a tanner, ſhoemaker, butcher or other artificer, uſing or cutting of leather; on pain of forfeiting 6 *s.* 8 *d.* for every hide he ſhall curry during the time he ſhall occupy any of the ſaid myſteries. And curriers are obliged to curry the leather brought to them for that purpoſe within a reaſonable time, under a penalty not exceeding 5 *l.*

By the ſame act the Lord Mayor, and aldermen of London (on pain of 40 *l.* for every year they make default, half to the king and half to him that ſhall ſue) ſhall yearly appoint eight freemen of ſome of the companies of cordwainers, curriers, ſadlers, or girdlers (whereof one ſhall be a ſealer and keep a ſeal for the ſealing of leather;) who ſhall be ſworn before them to do their office truly; and they ſhall ſearch and view all tanned leather brought to market, whether it is thoroughly tanned and dried; and if it is, ſhall ſeal the ſame. And four of the ſaid ſearchers ſhall be removed at the end of the year, and four new ones choſen; and no one ſhall continue in the office above two years together, nor ſhall be employed again till after the end of three years, on pain of 10 *l.* a month. In other places, the number of theſe officers is two, three or more, and they are appointed by mayors, lords of liberties, fairs and markets, &c.

And they may ſearch as often as they think good, or need ſhall be, and ſeal what they find ſufficient; and if they find any leather offered to be ſold, or brought to be ſealed, which ſhall be inſufficiently tanned or curried, or any boots, ſhoes, bridles, or other things made of tanned or curried leather, inſufficiently tanned, curried or wrought, they may ſeize and keep the ſame, till they be tried by the triers.

The Lord Mayor of London (on pain of 5*l.* half to the king, and half to him that ſhall ſue) ſhall, within ſix days after notice given to him of any ſeizure of any leather, red and unwrought, appoint ſix triers, two of the cordwainers company, two of the curriers, and two of the tanners uſing Leadenhall market, who, upon their oaths to be taken before him, ſhall, on the ſecond or third market day for leather, to be holden on Tueſday, in the afternoon try whether the ſame be ſufficient or not. Every other mayor, or lord of liberty, out of the compaſs of three miles from London, within whoſe precincts any ſeizure of any tanned leather, red or curried, or of any ſhoes, boots, or other wares made of tanned leather, ſhall be, ſhall (on like pain) with all convenient ſpeed, after notice given to him of ſuch ſeizure, appoint ſix honeſt and expert men, to try whether the ſame be ſufficient or not; the ſame trial to be openly on ſome market day, and within fifteen days at the fartheſt from the time of the ſeizure, upon the oaths of the ſaid triers. Triers not doing duty forfeit 5*l.*

No perſon is allowed to put to ſale any tanned leather red and unwrought, but in open fair or market, unleſs the ſame has been firſt ſearched and ſealed; nor ſhall offer to ſale any tanned leather red and unwrought before it be ſearched and ſealed; on pain of forfeiting the ſame, or the value thereof, and alſo for every hide or piece 6*s.* 8*d.* and for every dozen of calves ſkins 3*s.* 4*d.* All red tanned leather ſhall be bought only in the open fair or market, and not in any houſe, yard, ſhop, or other place; on pain of forfeiting the ſame or the value thereof, and the contract to be void. And all ſuch leather ſhall be ſearched and ſealed before ſale, and on ſale ſhall be regiſtered and an entry made both by the buyer and ſeller, both being preſent, and their names and dwellings entered into the book of the regiſter; on pain that every ſuch buyer or ſeller who ſhall make default, ſhall forfeit the ſame or the value thereof. Searchers and ſealers ſhall keep a regiſter, wherein they ſhall enter all bargains made for leather, hides or ſkins, during the fair or market, being thereunto required by the buyer or ſeller, with the prices taken for ſearching, ſealing, and regiſtering of every ten hides, backs or butts of the ſeller, 2*d.* and ſo after the ſame rate. All red tanned leather which ſhall be brought into

London

London, or within three miles thereof, ſhall be brought to Leadenhall before it be houſed, and there viewed whether it has been ſearched or ſealed, and ſhall be regiſtered by the ſearchers, with half ſuch fees to be paid for ſuch of the ſaid tanned leather as ſhall be bought out of London, or three miles compaſs from the ſame, and ſearched and ſealed before it be brought within the city; on pain that every perſon houſing or not bringing his leather to Leadenhall as aforeſaid, ſhall forfeit for every hide or ſkin 6*s.* 8*d.* Within London, or three miles thereof, no perſon ſhall ſell any wares appertaining to the myſtery of any artificer cutting leather, but only in open ſhop, common fair or market, whereby the wardens may have ſearch thereof; on pain of forfeiting the ſame, and alſo 10*s.*

No ſhoemakers ſhall make any boots or ſhoes, or any part of them, of Engliſh leather wet curried (other than deer ſkins, calves' ſkins or goat ſkins made and dreſſed like Spaniſh leather), but of leather well and truly tanned, and curried in manner aforeſaid, or of leather well and truly tanned only, and well ſewed. And if any ſhoemaker, ſadler, or other artificer uſing of leather do make any wares of any tanned leather inſufficiently tanned, or of tanned and curried leather being not ſufficiently tanned and curried; he ſhall forfeit the ſame and the value thereof. And the maſter and wardens of the myſteries of cordwainers, curriers, girdlers, and ſadlers of London (on pain of 40*l.* for every year they make default, half to the king and half to him that ſhall ſue) ſhall, once a quarter or oftener, make ſearch and view of all boots and ſhoes, and other wares made of tanned leather, within three miles of London, and if they are not truly wrought, they may ſeize and carry the ſame to the ſeveral common halls.

Iron. Iron, as it is the moſt uſeful, ſo it is through the wiſe diſtribution of Providence, the moſt common of all metals; it is plentifully found in all parts of the Britiſh dominions. The Romans wrought, and it is probable were the firſt who wrought our mines, as appears from their medals found in the heaps of ſlags and cinders, which are the only monuments remaining of their induſtry in this particular. The ore has many different appearances. Some is ſtyled *Bruſh* ore, as being compoſed of threads growing on a red kind of earth, or hanging from the tops of caves or old works. Some in ſtones of a reddiſh, blueiſh, or grey colours, ſometimes in a ſort of ſtiff unctuous clay, and ſometimes in a black ſand. When free from its ore, the metal is cloſe, hard, fuſible, ductile into wire, ſonorous and elaſtic. In reſpect to weight, it is in regard to water as ſeventy-eight to ten, but to gold as ſeventy-eight to one hundred ninety-ſix. The mines are from twelve to fifty, and are very rarely more

than ſixty feet deep. The veins, or loads, like thoſe of tin, are of very different dimenſions, and their contents of very different natures, which rather than their ſize determine their value. It is however found by experience, that mixing together ores of very different qualities has very good effects. It is wrought ſo as to render it fit for uſe, with much trouble and at no ſmall expenſe. Some ore is roaſted before it can be ſmelted. This laſt operation is performed in a large open furnace, the fuel and ore being mixed, and the fire kept to the greateſt height by two pair of large bellows moved by a wheel driven by water. When the metal is melted, it is let out of the receivers into a bed of ſand, which has one large and ſeveral ſmall diviſions, in which it lies and cools. The iron in the large diviſion is called a ſow, and in the ſmaller pigs. When the furnace is once charged they keep it continually ſupplied with ore and fuel, and as occaſion requires, let out the metal for ſeveral months. In the foreſt of Dean, the richeſt ore produces an hard brittle iron, but by mixing ſlag and cinders therewith, it becomes the tougheſt and beſt we have. Pig iron, though metal, and fit for ſome uſes, is not malleable. In order to give the metal that neceſſary quality, it is carried to the forges, and there heated and hammered in every direction, till the heterogeneous matter being expelled, it is thoroughly incorporated, united, and as the workmen call it welded together. After this it is divided at the ſlitting mills, and then it is ſtiled bar iron. The uſes of this moſt valuable metal are by far too many to admit, and too well known to require an explanation here. Steel is made from iron by cementation, and employed in all the finer manufactures, in ſome of which, by the ſkill and induſtry of the artificers, it is raiſed to a very high value.

After noticing the great utility of iron, Mr. Oddy makes the following important ſtatement and obſervations. This metal is the moſt uſeful of all, not only as applying to ſuch a great variety of purpoſes, but as being capable to be manufactured to a ſtate ſeven hundred times more valuable than even gold. It was remarked by an author, even at the beginning of the laſt century, "that the ſame quantity of iron ſtone which, when firſt taken from its natural bed was not worth five ſhillings, when made into iron and ſteel, and then into various manufactures for foreign markets, might in ſome caſes bring home to the value of ten thouſand pounds." That iron may by labour be made ſeven hundred times dearer than ſtandard gold, weight for weight, is no exaggeration. In the making watch ſprings, ſix, ſeven, and eight, will only weigh one grain; the price is from ſixpence to one guinea each; but in the very fineſt work for the very beſt watches, reckoning only ſix to a grain, which

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is even too little, then, at a guinea each, iron can be made ſeven hundred and fifty-ſix times dearer than gold.

It is aſtoniſhing that a material, ſo truly important, ſhould, without any aid or encouragement from government, except a duty on foreign iron imported, have riſen to ſo high a pitch, whilſt others, ſuch as our linens, have had bounties, premiums, and encouragement, and yet have made but little advance, whilſt the iron manufactures are extending and increaſing in general.

There can be no doubt that iron has been made in England at all times; the Romans had iron works in Glouceſterſhire, where traces have been found of their forges and utenſils. We formerly imported ſome from Spain, where, in the year 989, there are accounts of the Moors manufacturing it of a moſt excellent quality.

The firſt act of parliament in England relative to iron was in 1354, when Edward III. prohibited the exportation, not only of the Britiſh made iron, but that which was imported; on account of the high price then paid in England for that article. From that period till about the middle of the 16th century, at one interval, a rage exiſted, and licences were granted, for tranſmuting metals into gold and ſilver; each applicant conceiving that he had found the philoſophers' ſtone. Theſe bubbles, in Henry VI.'s and Edward IV.'s time, no doubt were the means of extending the iron founderies in this country, and they muſt have conſiderably increaſed in that time. In 1581 (Queen Elizabeth's reign) an act paſſed that no iron works were to be eſtabliſhed within twenty-two miles of London, nor within fourteen miles of the Thames; only in ſome parts in Suſſex, and no where near the ſea; nor was any wood in thoſe diſtricts to be cut down for making iron. In 1585 another act was paſſed, that no iron works ſhould be eſtabliſhed in Surry, Kent, or Suſſex; and no timber, above a certain ſize, was to be cut down for the purpoſe of carrying on any iron works.

Notwithſtanding ſeveral reſtraints, it was about this time that the importance of this branch of our manufactures began to be felt. In 1630 an act was made prohibiting the importation of foreign wire, woolcards made thereof, and other articles made of foreign wire. It was only ſixty-five years before this period, that we uſed to import theſe things. The foreign became prohibited; and the Engliſh wire, made from the native, "Oſmond iron was found the toughеſt and beſt." There muſt, however, have been ſome defect in the making of iron; for, in 1637, a proclamation was iſſued that pigs and bars of Engliſh made iron ſhould be marked, by the king's ſurveyors, to prevent the ſale of bad iron; and ſome reſtrictions were likewiſe iſſued relative to cutting wood.

In 1715, in Virginia, in America, pig and bar iron were firſt made; and in conſequence of ſome regulations relative to naval ſtores from Britiſh America, in 1719, a jealouſy was ſhewn in this country of the iron works eſtabliſhing in America, and ſome reſtrictive clauſes were introduced by parliament unfavourable to the works in the colonies. The proprietors of the iron mines at home at this period, in conſequence of the claims of the coloniſts to eſtabliſh forges and works, ſeemed to have been a good deal rouſed, and to have made ſuch repreſentations of the iron trade at home as to give us a pretty correct idea of its ſtate at that period, one which Peter the Great of Ruſſia was likewiſe puſhing in his dominions; ſo that with Sweden and Ruſſia the iron-founders in England had powerful competitors, with America too in view.

In the year following, 1720, ſome further light was thrown on the iron trade, by a Mr. Wm. Wood, who at that time was the moſt conſiderable iron maſter in Great Britain; who had the mines on the crown lands of thirty-nine counties, and the largeſt iron works in the kingdom for making bar iron, rolling, ſlitting, and preparing it for ſeveral uſes; and furnaces for all articles in which caſt iron was then generally uſed. He ſtates that at this time we uſed about 30,000 tons of iron annually, of which, for want of cord wood, we were obliged to import about 20,000 tons; and as there was iron-ſtone enough, and no fuel to work it with, he recommended the planting and raiſing of coppices on waſte and other lands. In ſhort, at that period, our iron maſters were much in the ſame ſtate in England for want of fuel, as the Ruſſian iron maſters now find themſelves for their works in that empire.

As our true intereſts began to be ſeen in giving ſome protection to the iron founderies in England, which had riſen by individual enterprize alone, an act of parliament was paſſed in 1769 for diſcontinuing, upon the exportation of iron in foreign ſhips, the drawbacks of ſuch parts of the duties payable thereon, as exceeded the duties payable upon iron imported in Britiſh ſhips. In this year the importation of iron from Ruſſia alone amounted to upwards of 34,000 tons. To ſuch an extent, through the foſtering care firſt given by Peter the Great, had the iron mines arrived in Ruſſia, that they materially injured the ſale of the Swediſh, from whence much leſs than a century before they uſed to import into Ruſſia. Such are the effects to be produced when governments wiſely patronize national objects of improvement and induſtry.

The American war breaking out, that formidable rival to our iron trade was at an end; ſoon after the cloſe of that war, the increaſe of our trade, and the extenſion of our manufactures, created

created an additional conſumption of iron in the country, and although we had powerful competitors in Ruſſia and in Sweden, yet our founderies were producing an annual increaſe by manufacturing iron with pit coal inſtead of wood, as heretofore. Before that method was diſcovered, only 18,000 tons of iron could be produced in theſe kingdoms; Ireland had already exhauſted all her wood for that purpoſe.

The uſe of pit coal charred had occaſionally been tried for making pig and bar iron, and was firſt uſed by a perſon of the name of Dudley, in Staffordſhire, who then made ſome good iron by that method; but the prejudice againſt it was ſo great that it was laid aſide, from want of better knowledge at that time in the proper management; nor was it till about forty years ago, that the attempt was again ſucceſsfully revived by the reſpectable company of Colebrook-dale, in Salop, who matured the proceſs and brought it to perfection. From this epoch we muſt date the ſolid eſtabliſhment of our iron founderies in this country, which have ſince increaſed rapidly. Many people of property began great ſchemes of iron works, in various parts of Great Britain, for making pig and bar iron with pit coal.

It is ſtated in 1783, that Ireland made but little bar iron, and that her importation had increaſed one-third in ten years. The average quantity of iron imported into Ireland for three years ending the 25th of March 1773, was

From Ruſſia and Sweden - -	3734 tons,
From Great Britain - - -	2217
	5951 tons.

Average of three years ending 25th March, 1783.

From Ruſſia and Sweden - -	4924 tons
From Great Britain - - -	3736
	8660 tons.

Some founderies were likewiſe eſtabliſhed in Ireland. In the courſe of nineteen years we find little variation in the quantity of iron imported into Ireland either foreign or Britiſh.

For the year ending the 5th January 1802.

Ruſſia, Swediſh, Daniſh, and foreign iron -	4941 tons
Britiſh - - - - -	4512
	9453 tons.

Iron and Hardware rated at 138,941*l.*

Amongſt other curious calculations, in 1783, iron is eſtimated in what we imported and made from its rough ſtate, through

all its various manufactured branches, to be of the value of 8,700,000 *l.* greateſt part of which may be reckoned labour; indeed it is aſtoniſhing to ſee this branch ſo greatly extended in ſo ſhort a period; not ſo much in the rough material as the hardware manufactures at Birmingham and other places, but particularly at Sheffield, ſo famous for cutlery, where the firſt knives were made in England, by one Thomas Mathews, of London, in the year 1563, when we imported the greateſt part of our manufactured requiſites from Flanders and other countries.

It is, however, only within the laſt ten years, that the iron founderies in theſe kingdoms have had ſuch a rapid and almoſt incredible riſe; two circumſtances have not a little contributed to give us a firm footing in this valuable branch: the firſt was the error of the Ruſſian government in making a loan bank to accommodate the Ruſſian iron maſters, by advancing money on the ſecurity of the iron, to compel the Engliſh to give them ſuch price as they demanded; and the laſt, the detention of the Britiſh ſhips and property in the year 1800, which gave a wonderful animation to every capitaliſt in the iron trade to embark in this lucrative branch.

But the grand increaſe of iron is in Wales, where, forty years paſt, no iron was produced, in whoſe extenſive mountains are diſcovered inexhauſtible mines of iron ore, with an unequalled and happy advantage of fuel at the ſame time. When the Iriſh propoſitions were before parliament, in 1786, it was calculated that Great Britain made about 30,000 tons of bar iron; but ſuch has been the increaſe within the laſt ten years, that Wales alone produces conſiderably beyond that quantity, and where two companies who have eſtabliſhments in London, at this period produce about 18,000 tons of bar iron annually. About ſeven years ago, the reſult of an inquiry, inſtituted by government, was then calculated to be 125 furnaces in Great Britain, ſuppoſed to produce 130,000 tons of pig iron; this quantity, by thoſe who have the beſt means of being informed in the trade, is ſuppoſed to be doubled, if not near 300,000 tons throughout the kingdom, in pig, caſt, and bar iron; of the laſt from 80 to 100,000 tons; the whole quantity is almoſt incredible, but our ſurprize may ceaſe when we ſee the uſes to which pig or caſt iron is now applied for all domeſtic and other purpoſes of almoſt every deſcription. In the neighbourhood of Leeds, even buildings without wood, but iron in its place, to the very window frames, joiſts, and rafters; upon which plan a very large building is at this time erecting near Briſtol, on the Bath road. Railways, pipes, and aqueducts are now formed of caſt iron, and indeed every purpoſe, even to the building of bridges, the ſtructures of two of which, one at Colebrook-

dale,

dale, and the other at Sunderland, are monuments of national genius and enterprize, not to be equalled by any deſcription in hiſtory. The Britiſh made bar iron is manufactured at this time at ſo low a rate as to be ſold on the quay at Briſtol at little above 14 *l.* per ton; before the preſent war with France, cargoes of iron in various ſtates where ſhipped from hence to that country; hoops made of Engliſh iron, from its improved manufacture, (which till lately were always made of foreign,) are now ſent to Portugal, Madeira, the Mediterranean, as well as Britiſh bar iron to Africa, the Eaſt Indies, and Ireland, and no doubt it will ſoon become an article of traffic for America and the whole world, if no caſualty nor meaſures of burden are laid upon it, as the duty on foreign iron and the high price extorted for it abroad, act as a bounty, which it is hoped will be continued till our manufacture is completely ſecured. The export is rapidly on the riſe, which will be demonſtrated by the following official value, at the cuſtom houſe, on the exportation of Britiſh bar iron:

1797	-	£13,178	1801	-	£30,018
1798	-	18,888	1802	-	54,969
1799	-	26,902	1803	-	53,304
1800	-	28,514			

Likewiſe of Britiſh iron, wrought, caſt, and manufactured into various articles, in the following years:

1797	-	£1,067,691	1801	-	£1,417,715
1798	-	1,069,290	1802	-	1,616,204
1799	-	1,488,074	1803	-	1,218,038
1800	-	1,570,820			

Notwithſtanding the almoſt incredible rapid increaſe in the production of our own iron, within the laſt ſeven years, it muſt appear rather aſtoniſhing that we import ſo much foreign iron; but this will ceaſe, when we conſider our extended foreign commerce, and the prejudice of uſing foreign iron yet amongſt our ſhip-builders, anchor-ſmiths, and throughout the navy, as well as for various other purpoſes. This has cauſed the foreign iron trade to ſtand thus, during the laſt ſeven years, being the official value, from the cuſtom houſe, of the imports and exports of foreign iron:

Years.	Imported.	Exported.	Balance.
1797	- £361,322	- 83,301	- £278,021
1798	- 507,840	- 62,844	- 444,996
1799	- 472,732	- 90,604	- 382,128
1800	- 374,949	- 66,775	- 308,174
1801	- 326,609	- 53,191	- 273,418
1802	- 517,269	- 87,822	- 429,447
1803	- 425,295	- 47,471	- 377,734

So

So that upon an average, we have for the above ſeven years conſumed in Great Britain, about 43,000 tons of foreign iron annually, which, in its abſolute firſt coſt to the individuals, and of courſe, loſs to the nation, is upwards of 700,000 *l.* ſterling per annum, which we could inſtantly produce at home, with infinitely greater facility than any other branch of manufacture we have in the kingdom, and at a conſiderably leſs price than we are paying for foreign iron; and, although it is ſaid, we muſt have ſome of the very beſt ſorts of foreign iron for particular purpoſes in our manufactures, it is well known we can make as good iron in this country, with charcoal, for thoſe particular purpoſes, as any we can import; to be ſure, it will coſt a little more; but, why not encourage our own manufacture? Why ſhould not the navy and every other department uſe Britiſh made iron, when foreigners already begin, not only to take it, but prefer it?

The Swediſh iron is indeed of a ſuperior quality, the materials from which it is made being of the beſt ſort; it is manufactured with ſkill and care, and formed, with an attention very much to be commended, into all the ſizes that are moſt generally wanted in a material applied to ſuch a variety of purpoſes, and which is not altered in its form, without conſiderable labour and difficulty.

Of Ruſſian iron there are now only one or two fabrics, which will be imported at all into this country in a ſhort time.

It is to the great uſe of machinery that we owe in this country, a ſuperiority; for here, art has completely got the better of natural advantages. The proceſs of making iron, in its firſt ſtages, is chiefly chemical: it is by the action of fire on the materials, and ſo far the Swedes have ſtill the advantage; but to convert iron from this rude and nearly uſeleſs ſtate into malleable bars, is an operation performed by mechanical means, and where great force alone can produce any great effect; nor is it ſufficient to have rude machinery badly contrived and ill executed, there the friction is great, and the effect produced ſmall. It is in this we excel ſo much, at leaſt in the proportion of ſeven to one: for making iron is a more profitable buſineſs in England than in Sweden, notwithſtanding the natural advantages enjoyed in that country in reſpect to the buſineſs of making iron.

We do not ſurpaſs the Swedes in ſkill in the nature and properties of iron, but in capital and mechanical means.

That ſome of our iron ore is equal to any in the world, there is no doubt; but it varies in every diſtrict here as in other countries, yet the experienced and the well informed in this country ſay that Engliſh iron is, by nature, ſofter than any foreign

foreign we have imported, except Spaniſh; when worked with wood, no iron is ſo tough as Ruſſia, and the Engliſh iron can be made equally as tough; it is certainly not eſteemed ſo much, when made by cakes of pit coal, but there is a much greater waſte of metal in the proceſs; ſtill very great quantities, of excellent quality, are made with pit coal only, and the iron made with wood charcoal is for particular purpoſes.

Caſt iron wares bear, for exportation, no compariſon to bar iron and articles made from it; but the internal conſumption for rail roads, railings, bridges, rafters for houſes, and, in ſhort, every other purpoſe, in objects every moment preſenting themſelves to our ſight, is ſuch, that the quantity may be increaſed ſtill more; ſurely, this is the moſt flattering proſpect for the reſources of the kingdom, and may be deemed amongſt the firſt, for it is an article added to the capital of the country, produced by the labour of the people only, from that which coſts nothing, and is inexhauſtible in the bowels of our native ſoil.

In the iron trade, the ſpirit and energy of thoſe who carry it on, is ſuch, that government has not any occaſion to interfere with bounties or premiums. The unwiſe policy of the northern nations in raiſing the prices, anſwers every purpoſe, ſo that though they have in reality, according to the wages of labour, and value of money, a price equal to three times what we have, they never think of increaſing their induſtry and underſelling us, but take always the higheſt price they can get. When nations act upon the principle of high prices, the conſequence is, that others, when the article is ſuch as they can produce, take as little from them as poſſible, and endeavour to ſupply themſelves; and, as ſoon as they are able to do ſo, they import no more from thoſe avaricious unwiſe people; when, on the contrary, nations, where the value of money is great, can underſel and do ſo, then others take from them all they can get, and only manufacture for themſelves enough to ſupply the deficiency. Thus it is, that if Sweden and Ruſſia had kept the prices as low as they were twenty years ago, we ſhould take from them all we could, and only make enough at home to ſupply the deficiency; but, as it is, we make all we can, and our works are daily increaſing, while we take from them only enough to ſatisfy the demand which we are not yet able to do ourſelves.

Our iron maſters may, however, expect that when thoſe countries find we will not purchaſe any more from them, they will reduce the price, which it is in their power very eaſily to do; it will then become the buſineſs of the legiſlature to protect our home manufactures of iron, by a duty that will compenſate

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for the reduction of price that they will make, ſo ſoon as they find that they muſt either do that or loſe the market.

So firmly is the iron manufacture eſtabliſhed in this country, and ſo greatly extending, that we ſhall ſhortly be general exporters; indeed, Britiſh bar iron might now be exported to Sweden and Ruſſia at leſs prices, including freight and inſurance, than they inſiſted upon having a few years back, in the firſt coſt, from us. In 1804, the importation of iron into Britain, from Ruſſia, was not a fifth of the preceding year, ſo that the iron proprietors of Ruſſia will have to lament extorting ſuch high prices from the Engliſh, and ſtruggling ſo hard to have a loan bank to enforce. It would be a pity to quit this ſubject without obſerving how much the proſperity of nations depends on wiſe policy, which is always connected with moderation, and paying due attention to circumſtances; by due attention, we mean neither negligence on the one hand, nor being too eager to graſp on the other. In the time of Louis XIV. when Colbert was miniſter, we have ſeen how France, by being too tenacious, loſt the ſuperiority in the manufacture of watches, glaſs, paper, and cutlery, and many other articles. Sweden, uſing ſimilar power about pitch and tar, loſt that trade; and the northern powers follow ſtill the ſame meaſures, excluding Engliſh manufactures, and keeping up the price of their own. England ſeized wiſely, and with ſucceſs, the moment to rival France and Sweden; let her do ſo now with iron, fiſheries, and every thing elſe that the circumſtances will admit, and ſhe will place her proſperity on a baſis much more certain and permanent than that on which it now ſtands.

Tin. Tin was in very ancient times a known and celebrated production of Britain, and according to ſome, the origin of the name by which the country was diſtinguiſhed, *Barat Anac*, its ſuppoſed firſt name, ſignifying, *Ager Stanni*, or a land of Tin. Mines of tin firſt rendered the Scilly Iſles, then Devonſhire and Cornwall, famous; to which laſt county they are now chiefly confined. Tin, though in itſelf the lighteſt in its ore, is the heavieſt of metals. It is very ſeldom, if ever, found pure, and the appearances of its ore are very different. The fineſt and richeſt are ſtyled tin grains, or corns of tin, being cryſtals of a black colour of different ſizes. It is alſo found in a heavy black ſtone, ſometimes in a more porous yellow coloured ſtone, and is commonly intermixed with ſpar, arſenic, lead, and other bodies. As a metal it is white, ſhining, melts with a gentle heat; ductile, ſo as to ſpread under the hammer into leaf, which iron and copper will not do; yet cannot be drawn into wire as thoſe metals may. It is not ſonorous in itſelf, and

yet makes other metals ſo, when mixed with them. In point of gravity, it is as ſeven to one, in reſpect to water, and as ſeven to nineteen in regard to gold. Tin mines are generally found on the ſides of hills, though veins ſometimes paſs through vallies or brooks between two hills, and are followed to the oppoſite hill. They work with infinite difficulty through hard rocks, to the depth of from three to ſeventy fathoms; and the labour is no leſs troubleſome than dangerous, where the earth is looſe and apt to crumble. Great quantities of timber are conſumed in theſe ſubterraneous works, which are freed from water by the help of fire engines, and other contrivances. The veins are of uncertain thickneſs, from three inches to three feet. Tin grains or corns of tin, yield five parts in eight of metal; whereas tin ſtones yield only from one in thirty, to one in ſixty, and to one in a hundred and twenty, for even theſe are wrought to ſome ſmall profit. The ore when collected is broke, waſhed, ſtamped by mills, and otherwiſe treated to fit it for the melting houſe, which is called dreſſing; except the tin grains which need no ſuch preparation; after melting, it is called *black tin*; but before it can be expoſed to ſale it is carried to one of the five coinage towns, where after examination of a piece that is broke from a corner of the block, the arms of the Duchy of Cornwall are impreſſed with a hammer, and then it is called white tin. The duty on coinage, which is four ſhillings on the hundred weight, belongs to the Prince of Wales as Duke of Cornwall, and produces a great revenue. The uſes of tin are many; it is ſometimes given in medicine; preparations from it are employed as coſmetics; it is uſed in varniſhing earthen ware; in conjunction with mercury it makes the foilage ſpread on the back of looking glaſſes; amalgamated with quickſilver, ſulphur, and ſal ammoniac, it produces the moſaic gold; the calx poliſhes glaſs, ſteel, &c. the compound calx is what we call putty*; it is alſo uſed in ſolder: Another manner in which it is uſed in this and in other countries, is what is called tinning, by which copper veſſels are rendered neater in appearance, and ſafer in uſe. When applied on thin plates of iron, it becomes fit for many uſes, and furniſhes a variety of handſome and wholeſome utenſils; it enters into the compoſition of bell metal, of printers' types, and to it are due the elegance, hardneſs, and beauty of our pewter. The deep ruby colour extracted from gold uſed by painters in enamel, is made by precipitating the ſolution of that metal in Aqua Regia, with calx of tin, and in this reſpect it is highly uſeful in ſtriking all ſcarlet dyes.

Notwithſtanding the copious production of tin in England; the tin plates were long imported from Germany. Andrew

* This is not the painters or glaziers putty, but a powder of calcined tin, uſed in giving the laſt poliſh to fine works in ſteel, &c.

Yarranton,

Yarranton, in a work entitled *England's Improvement by Sea and Land*, (2 Vol. 4to. 1681) aſſerts that tin plates (*i. e.* iron plates tinned over) were made in England through his means, he having been employed by ſome gentleman to go to Bohemia, where he learned the manner of making them. When he returned home, he ſet proper perſons to work, who made better than any he had ſeen abroad, the metal being better, and the plates more pliable; but a patent being obtained by ſome great man at court, who had diſcovered the ſcheme, for the ſole making of them, that manufacture was dropped by his employers, who had with ſo much charge made the diſcovery. The art thus ſaid to have been imported remained for many years unpractiſed in England, inſomuch, that among the bubbles of the year 1720, this was one; yet, ſince that time, the manufacture of tinned plates is brought to greater perfection in England than in any other part of the world. In 1740 it was obſerved that few tin plates were imported from foreign parts: our own being now made of a finer gloſs or ſkin than that manufactured beyond ſea; that being hammered, and ours being drawn under a rolling mill. This improvement is a conſiderable benefit to the nation in the general annual balance of trade; a great quantity of this article being conſumed in Britain, Ireland and the plantations. That which is called japanned tin, and the manufacture of Pont-y-Pool are brought to unrivalled perfection, not only exhibiting the richeſt and gayeſt tints of colouring, but pictures exquiſite in deſign, maſterly in execution, and durable as the metal on which they are diſplayed.

Copper. Copper is plentifully found in all the Britiſh territories; yet, though long known before, our mines were not wrought to any great purpoſe till the eighteenth century. Lately, indeed, the produce has ſurpaſſed all previous calculation, in conſequence of the diſcovery of the treaſure contained in the famous Paris mountain in Angleſea. This metal is ſometimes found pure, or very nearly ſo, and that in ſo large pieces as to make it neceſſary to break them in the mine before they can be conveniently raiſed; but in general, like other metals, involved in ſtony cruſts of all colours, and even many of theſe are beautifully blended together, whence the ore receives the name of the peacock's tail. This ſtony ore is ſo intimately mixed with, and adheres ſo cloſely to, the metal, that it is extremely difficult to ſeparate them, which is one principal cauſe of the dearneſs of copper. This metal is of a bright orange red, cloſe, hard, malleable, ductile into wire, ſonorous, and elaſtic; and is not only wrought on by all ſolvents, but even by water, which makes it very apt to ruſt. In point of gravity, it is as nine to one in reſpect to water, and in regard to gold as nine to nineteen. The mines are wrought to a great depth, ſometimes to

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more than a hundred fathoms, often through a very hard rock, and conſequently with much labour and a vaſt expenſe. The ſeparating the metal from the ore is a very arduous and intricate operation; for firſt it is broken to pieces in the mine, then raiſed, ranged according to its ſizes, waſhed, picked, ſtamped, and ſorted. When brought to the melting houſe, it is firſt roaſted, next ſtamped again, and then melted, when it is ſtyled red copper, and having ſtill heterogeneous ſubſtances mixed with it, melted over again perhaps more than once, and then it is ſtyled black copper; if it is ſuſpected to hold ſilver, as it frequently does, it is returned to the furnace, where a proportion of lead is added, and then it is expoſed only to ſuch a degree of heat as is ſufficient to melt the lead, which attracts and carries away the ſilver, leaving the block of copper honeycombed. This is afterwards melted, and becomes at laſt what is called roſe copper, that is, perfectly fine and pure. The uſes of this metal, like thoſe of iron, are too numerous to be inſerted here; it may be ſufficient to obſerve, that its malleability, flexibility, ductility, and elaſticity, render it fit almoſt for every thing to which metal can be applied. Beſides it is to be remembered, that from copper braſs is made, and thence all the numberleſs articles that are manufactured for public and private uſe, from our heavy artillery down to the furniture of the kitchen, and, which occaſions no ſmall conſumption, drawn into wire for pins.

The mine in Angleſea demands particular notice. The name of the place, in which it ſubſiſts, the Paris mountain, is ſuppoſed to be derived from the old Welch word, "*Praos*," ſignifying "*braſs*," which might eaſily be corrupted into Paris. The copper mines in this part of the iſland are ſuppoſed to have been known and worked by the Romans; a pool on the top of the mountain having been diſtinguiſhed, long before the preſent works were formed, by the name of the Mine Pool. The mine of this mountain is conſiderably more than a mile in circumference, and on an average 1300 men are conſtantly employed in it. It has the ſingular advantage of being worked in the open air; a circumſtance which expedites the labour, and ſecures the health of thoſe employed. Abundance of vitriolic water is found in theſe works, which is ſo ſtrong as inſtantaneouſly to turn whatever ſteel or iron is dipped into it, to the colour and appearance of copper: This water is expoſed to the ſun in large open troughs, and the copper quality is extracted from it by a curious proceſs. Great quantities of ſulphur are alſo produced, and its ſublimation is carried on in various ſpots upon the mountain, till at laſt the whole is collected into large boiling houſes, and formed into rolls of brimſtone. The copper

ore

ore is then carried down to melting houſes, conſtructed in the valley below, near the ſea ſide, where every remaining operation is performed with wonderful art and aſſiduity. Copper, in conſequence of the diſcovery of this mine, is exported in ſuch vaſt quantities, that it is affirmed that a diſcontinuance of working it for a ſingle week would raiſe the price throughout Europe.

Lead. Lead is a metal for which this iſland was always famous. Our mines were very probably wrought by the Britons, but certainly by the Romans; and one of their moſt learned writers has aſſured us, that the produce was ſo great as to render it neceſſary to fix the quantity that ſhould be raiſed. The Saxons followed their example, and indeed our lead mines were in all ages amongſt the acknowledged ſources of our national wealth, and ſo they ſtill remain. This metal is very abundant in South Britain, North Britain, Ireland, and the adjacent iſles. The ore appears in many different forms, and thence receives ſeveral names. Sometimes from its colour, it is ſtyled grey, blue, or white ore: ſometimes from its texture, it is called ſpringy, ſteel grained, and croſs grained ore; and ſometimes from its poſition, flat, plated, or bellied ore; but the moſt common, is the diced, cubic, or teſſelated ore. In ſome places it has been found ſo free from ſpar, or other heterogeneous matter, as to be almoſt pure, and this is called naked ore, and is very rich. Lead, when refined, is the ſofteſt of all metals, ſmooth, ductile, and little, if at all, ſonorous or elaſtic. It is, in reference to water, as eleven to one, and in reſpect to gold, as eleven to nineteen. Mines of lead are commonly on the declivity of hills, and thoſe in this country are wrought from ten to ſeventy fathoms deep, cut with much labour and no ſmall charge. The veins are very irregular, ſometimes a few inches only, and ſometimes ſeveral feet in extent. The ore is alſo ſometimes forced out of the lead and found looſe in pretty conſiderable quantities, and at ſome diſtance.

The operation of ſeparating the metal from the ore is likewiſe attended with trouble and expenſe, though with leſs in both than tin, iron, or copper. In the firſt place it is broke and beat to pieces, next waſhed in a running ſtream, then paſſed through iron ſieves, and laſtly carried to the furnace. This is placed on a hearth of clay or iron ſtone, on which a fire is made with charcoal, and maintained with ſmall wood. The ore is thrown on this fire, and, as the metal melts, it runs down into a receptacle prepared for it; thence, while liquid, it is lifted out in an iron ladle red hot, and being caſt into a bed of ſand it becomes, when cold, what they call a pig of lead. There is a wide difference in the nature and value of ores, for ſome yield but thirty-five and others eighty pounds of metal from one hundred

of

of ore; but if they yield leſs than thirty-five, they are not thought worth the working, unleſs the ore is alſo known to hold ſilver. In fact, almoſt all Britiſh lead holds ſilver, more or leſs; but ſeldom in ſufficient quantity to defray the expenſe of extracting it; ſome lead yields thirty ounces of ſilver in a ton, ſome eighteen, and ſome only four ounces. The ores richeſt in lead, hold no ſilver at all worth extracting.

To enumerate all uſes to which this metal is applied, either manufactured by itſelf, or in compoſition with other metals, would require a ſeparate treatiſe. From lead ſome other ſubſtances are produced, which, from the large conſumption of them, may be regarded as of great value. Ceruſe, or white lead, which is made by expoſing thin plates of this metal to the fumes of vinegar, which is the baſis of ſeveral kinds of paint, ſerves for many other purpoſes, and is alſo of ſome uſe in ſurgery. There is likewiſe a very beautiful colour made from the calx of lead, which paſſes under the name of yellow ochre. Add to theſe minium or red lead, which is obtained by giving and continuing a certain high degree of heat to the calx of lead, in a reverberatory furnace. It is in great uſe as a fine red pigment, enters into the compoſition of deſiccative plaiſters; and is a capital article in the commerce of the Levant. Lead has always been a very conſiderable article of exportation.

Of other metals of inferior importance, it is not neceſſary here to ſpeak, nor of thoſe which are not produced in Great Britain, further than to obſerve, that the goldſmiths and ſilverſmiths of this country have ever been, and are ſtill highly celebrated for their exquiſite workmanſhip, and are frequently employed on large foreign orders.

Glass. This uſeful and beautiful material is formed from the moſt ordinary ſubſtances, the aſhes of plants and ſand or pebbles. The manufacture was early known in England, but appears to have been firſt ſeriouſly purſued in 1557. In 1670, manufacturers were procured from Venice to teach the art of making the finer glaſs, and their imperfect inſtructions were greatly improved by the French refugees in 1685. At this day, no country in the world excels Great Britain in the manufacture of ordinary and flint glaſs. In plate glaſs, conſiderable progreſs has been made, but finer ſpecimens are ſtill to be procured from France.

In 1773 a ſociety was incorporated for twenty-one years, by the name of *The Governor and Company of Britiſh Caſt Plate Glaſs Manufacturers*, for the purpoſe of carrying on and improving the manufactory, by a joint ſtock of eighty ſhares of 500 *l.* each, and they eſtabliſhed themſelves in Lancaſhire. This undertaking, although the excellence of its wares was much extolled, does

not appear to have been very prosperous, since, in 1785, the proprietors, applying to parliament, complained that they had never been able to pay any dividend, though they had expended 100,000 *l.*; and they prayed that they might at least be relieved from paying duty on the waste glass. In 1798, it appears that they had brought that branch of manufacture to great perfection; but in so doing they had sunk their own capital, and also borrowed 67,535*l.* 8*s.* for carrying on their business, for payment of which they had been compelled to sell their property to some persons, who carried on the manufacture under the act till its expiration, and afterwards as a private company. The manufacture being beneficial to the public, the present proprietors were incorporated for twenty-one years. Their capital is not to exceed 100,000*l.* in which is included that of the former company, now vested in the new corporation; and they are enabled to hold lands and tenements not exceeding 1,000 *l.* per annum, make bye laws, &c. They may dissolve themselves at any time, by consent of a majority holding 700 shares, on giving six months notice in the Gazette. Their property is also protected by some particular statutes, as has been noticed under the head Criminal Law.

Earthen Ware. By progressive improvement, but chiefly by the ingenuity and industry of one individual, earthen ware or pottery, from being an article of importation, is become a very important object of export trade. Of the advance of this great natural benefit, the following account is given by Mr. Macpherson. The north part of Staffordshire, abounding with coal, and its usual attendant, strong fire clay, has certainly been the seat of manufactories of earthen ware for several centuries. When Dr. Plott wrote his Natural History of Staffordshire in the year 1686, the manufacture was confined to coarse butter pans, and such ware, the sale of which extended no farther than they could be carried on the backs of the workmen or hawkers. About the beginning of the eighteenth century the discovery of a fine bed of red earth at Bradwell induced two brothers of the name of Elers to come from Holland and settle there: and they may be considered as the first improvers of the pottery. They made a fine kind of red porcelain in imitation of the oriental; and they introduced the art of glazing earthen ware by throwing common salt into the oven at the time of its highest ignition; but the clouds of smoke, raised by this operation, gave such offence to the neighbourhood, that they were obliged to leave the country; and, it is believed, they removed to Ireland. The clays of Staffordshire are not fit for making white earthen ware; but the ingenuity of the manufacturers has discovered various improvements and combinations of the different substances,

which

which have enabled them to produce from their own clays ſeveral ſpecies of earthen ware, ſtill beyond the reach of foreign competition. The pipe clay of Devonſhire was alſo carried to Staffordſhire, and formed the baſis of a white earthen ware, which was ſoon after much improved by the accidental diſcovery of the uſe of calcined flint. Theſe improvements produced a ſtronger and more agreeable ſpecies of goods, known for many years by the name of *white ſtone ware*, which was glazed with ſalt in the manner introduced by the Elers, the neighbours no longer complaining of the nuiſance of the ſmoke. This ware came into very general uſe all over the country; and ſome of it was exported; but ſtill great quantities of finer and more elegantly formed earthen ware were imported from France and Holland for the tables of the wealthy.

Such was the ſtate of the manufacture, when Mr. Joſiah Wedgwood in 1763 produced a kind of cream-coloured earthen ware, ſuperior in texture and durability to the French and Dutch, more capable of bearing the ſudden changes of heat and cold, and covered with a brilliant and impenetrable glazing, which could be furniſhed at a moderate expenſe. The tide of public taſte immediately turned; foreign earthen wares were diſcarded; Engliſh wares were uſed in every houſe in the kingdom, and began to be exported to the very countries from which earthen ware had hitherto been brought; and the foreign manufactures, unable to ſtand the competition, declined, or were abandoned.

Mr. Wedgwood, who, with the diligence of the manufacturer, poſſeſſed the ſcience and unwearied perſeverance of the experimental philoſopher, not ſatisfied with having added a moſt important article of univerſal uſe to the manufactures of the country, (for the quantity made before his improvement, compared with that made ſince, may be reckoned as nothing,) introduced many new ſpecies of porcelain of various colours and ſorts, of which are made an infinite variety of ornamental works, comprehending cameos, intaglios, baſreliefs, medallions, tablets, ſmall ſtatues, buſts, ſeals, &c. the matter of which is ſo hard, and ſo qualified to reſiſt the action of fire and acids, that it promiſes to remain, after time ſhall have deſtroyed pictures, and even marbles and bronzes, an unperiſhing monument, to hand down to the lateſt poſterity the immortal fame of the inventor, along with that of the characters repreſented on it. The fortunate circumſtance of Sir William Hamilton bringing over from Italy his admired collection of antique vaſes alſo opened a new field to his imitative powers, and he ſoon rendered their beautiful forms familiar in this country, inſtead of being confined to the knowledge of the few who could have acceſs to

ſee originals. He, moreover, diſcovered the art of painting on vaſes, &c. without any gloſs, in the manner of the ancient Etruſcans, which, according to Mr. D. Hancarville, (in his diſſertation on Sir William Hamilton's Muſeum) has been loſt ever ſince the age of Pliny: and his productions in this claſs have even a ſuperiority over the Etruſcan vaſes, as they add to the beauty of deſign, the advantages of light and ſhade in all the variety of colours. His porcelain mortars, harder and more impenetrable than marble or metal, and his pyrometers for determining the degree of heat in very ſtrong fires, deſerve the gratitude of all who are intereſted in medicinal and chemical operations. Nor muſt his improved ink pots, though trifling in point of price, be forgotten, as they are valuable to all who wiſh to preſerve the points of their pens from being ſpoiled, and their fingers from being daubed with ink. For the ſake of connection, he adds, I ſhall here give a brief account of the improved ſtate of the earthen ware manufacture, chiefly extracted from Mr. Wedgwood's own evidence, given before the committee of the Houſe of Commons in May 1785. From fifteen to twenty thouſand perſons are employed in the potteries: and much greater numbers are employed in digging coals for them, and in various diſtant parts of the kingdom, and even in Ireland, in raiſing and preparing the clay and flint, whereof fifty or ſixty thouſand tons are annually conveyed to Staffordſhire by coaſting and inland navigation, which gives employment not only to coaſting veſſels and canal barges, but alſo to veſſels belonging to the Newfoundland fiſhery during the months that they uſed to be laid up idle. Vaſt numbers are alſo employed in carrying the goods, when manufactured, to every part of Great Britain for home conſumption, and for exportation. Though many of the ſtates of Europe have prohibited the admiſſion of Britiſh earthen ware, and others have loaded it with intolerable duties, yet five-ſixths of the quantity made are exported; and ſcarcely a veſſel ſails from any port of Great Britain without carrying leſs or more of this cheap and univerſally uſeful article, the great bulk of which, in compariſon with its price, renders it a moſt important object in reſpect to freightage, as every ton in weight of the raw material becomes three or four tons in meaſurement, when ſhipped in its finiſhed ſtate. To this account of the great increaſe of the manufacture Mr. Wedgwood added, that he conceived it to be ſtill in its infancy, in compariſon of what it may be, if it is not interrupted in its growth. The manufacture has ſtill continued to increaſe, and has ſpread over a diſtrict in the north part of Staffordſhire of about nine miles in extent, the whole of which is now ſo covered with manufactories and dwelling houſes, that it has the appearance of one large

ſcattering

ſcattering town, and is accordingly called in the neighbourhood by the name of the *Pottery*, though including ſeveral towns and villages. Earthen ware is alſo made in imitation of Mr. Wedgwood's manner in many other parts of Great Britain, and in Ireland, and alſo in ſeveral parts of the continent of Europe. Thus are the meaneſt materials, clay and flint ſtones, converted into objects of the greateſt utility and beauty, and become the means of giving employment to a prodigious number of people with the greateſt poſſible national advantage, (for the whole value of the earthen ware of every kind is the price of labour paid to our own people,) and of opening a new and extenſive field of commerce of the moſt beneficial kind to the kingdom. For all theſe bleſſings Great Britain is indebted to the genius, the elegant taſte, the ſcience and the perſeverance, of Mr. Wedgwood, whoſe memory ought to be held in honour by all concerned in the landed or commercial intereſts, or who wiſh well to the general proſperity, of Great Britain.

Beſide thoſe enumerated, the inland trade of England furniſhes many extenſive heads of commerce from which great emoluments are derived, but which it is not neceſſary here to deſcribe. Such are the trades in coals, corn, cattle, and hops; the brewery, diſtillery, tobacco and ſnuff, and many other trades, and the manufacture of coaches, engines, clocks and watches, the conſtruction of mills, the building of houſes, and innumerable other means which induſtry and invention afford for the employment of capital.

Fishery. On this moſt important ſubject to Britiſh commerce, the following obſervations are offered by Mr. Oddy. In every country where the coaſts lay favourably for the fiſheries, their encouragement has been found to be an object of high importance; it increaſes the quantity of food, it brings up a hardy race of people, and it is a great ſource of wealth, by ſupplying ſuch nations as have not themſelves the means of catching fiſh. To Britain, which is an iſland circumſcribed in extent, and therefore limited in point of ſubſiſtence and population (which depends on the means of ſubſiſtence), the encouragement of fiſheries is a peculiar object of importance, and ought to be one of particular ſolicitude. Its defence too, in time of war, depending on its naval power, increaſes the importance of that ſource of wealth; and therefore, in more views than one, the fiſheries are fit objects for public bounties.

Dr. Adam Smith, whoſe views on ſubjects of political economy have been allowed to be in general good; and who, if in error in any leading principle, it is in wiſhing governments to interfere as little as poſſible in trade and commerce, allows that fiſheries are an exception, that their encouragement is a

national benefit, and therefore their extenſion ought to be an object for bounties and encouragement, at the expenſe of the public. The great floating capitals of merchants, which are ready to occupy themſelves on any branch of trade that ſeems advantageous, and is merely moveable, (that is to ſay, where to buy, ſell, or carry, is all the buſineſs,) very quickly occupy and ſeize on every new channel; but it is not ſo with fiſhing; merchants will, indeed, veſt their capitals in purchaſes of fiſh that are cured, or of oil, or other produce ariſing from fiſheries; but they will not inveſt their capitals either in fiſhing or curing, and unleſs they are caught and cured ready, they cannot be purchaſed. But without capital, fiſheries cannot be extended ſuddenly, and we, at this time in particular, require to make a great and a ſudden effort; but the manner of making it is the queſtion.

Joint ſtock companies, for the purpoſe of fiſhing, have ſeldom anſwered, and they never can anſwer any great purpoſe; neither will any great, complicated, or difficult plan ſucceed; it muſt be ſomething ſimple, and that will facilitate and encourage the labour of the poor individual fiſherman.

It is into the mode of doing this to the moſt advantage that we are to inquire; but, before we inquire into particular circumſtances, let us take a view of the general nature of the caſe.

In the firſt place, unleſs fiſh can be cured at a reaſonable price, the catching them will be to little purpoſe. The price of ſalt is the thing that renders that eaſy or difficult. Unleſs the poor fiſhermen can have boats and other implements, they cannot employ their induſtry, and theſe are expenſive tools. Manufactures never flouriſhed in this or in any country till a mode has been found out, of the rich furniſhing expenſive tools to the poor. In furniſhing the means to pay for theſe tools, ſome certain mode of repayment or ſecurity was expected or deviſed. With immoveable property this matter is ſimple and eaſy; but with property that is liable to be loſt, deſtroyed, or carried away, there are difficulties in the nature of the thing; it is then for the intelligence of man to remove or overcome the difficulties.

A government finds it impracticable to enter into the details neceſſary to aid individuals, where there are riſks and hazards to run, and where there is room not only for miſmanagement, but for fraud, both on the part of the individuals to be aſſiſted, and the agents employed to give the aſſiſtance. In this caſe, an intermediate perſon ſhould be employed, who ſhould ſecure the government from riſk, and find, in his vigilance in looking after the property, a reward for his trouble. All the attempts

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hitherto made to aid and increaſe our fiſheries, have been made upon a wrong principle; and one which, from its nature, could not ſucceed. They ought not to diſcourage us, or lead to the concluſion, that aid cannot effectually and advantageouſly be given: paſt experience ought not to diſcourage us, unleſs we find that the difficulties ariſe from the nature of things, and not from the manner in which the attempt has been made. To encourage poor men to work, furniſh them with the neceſſary implements; though boats and nets are not very expenſive, they are far too much ſo for the fiſhermen who uſe them to purchaſe. Next to the production of grain, certainly the fiſheries require our particular care and attention, not only as an article of food and traffic, but as a nurſery for producing hardy and robuſt ſeamen, ready at all times to man our fleets, and fight our battles.

The former difficulties relative to our fiſheries, appear, by the preſent political ſtate of Europe, to be done away, and if we do not take proper meaſures to promote them at the preſent opportunity, (advantages which combined circumſtances have given us at this moment,) it is our own faults.

The Greenland fiſhery of England has been upon the decline, whilſt that of Scotland has been upon the advance the laſt five years, and the Southern whale fiſhery is ſtationary: the great and increaſing importation of tallow, the depreciation in the price of whalebone, and the impreſs of ſeamen in the time of war, have all tended to cauſe the falling off in the Greenland fiſhery. That of the South Sea is encouraged by high bounties, yet ſtill it has not increaſed, though it has been prevented from decay. With reſpect to our home fiſheries, the field is wide, and the proſpect highly promiſing, if we only embrace the opportunity, we may nearly get this trade into our own hands. As ſo many volumes have been written on the fiſheries, and the government of this country has ſhown ſufficient inclination to encourage them, it will be ſufficient to point out how that may be done.

A bounty offered to a poor man to produce an article he has not the means of producing, is uſeleſs. Inſtead then of giving bounties for fiſh caught on the coaſt, let boats be conſtructed and let out under the direction of the miniſter and elders of the pariſh in Scotland, or thoſe who manage the poor in England, and let the ſum they are to pay be juſt ſufficient for intereſt, tear and wear, &c. Being inſured againſt the riſk of the ſea, the veſſel never can remain unaccounted for, and the ſum paid will be ſufficient to replace it, when worn out by regular uſe. There are not two hundred pariſhes in Scotland that touch the coaſt, and probably 200 *l.* in each, on the average, might be ſufficient, and put in activity 20,000 people in this

beneficial enterprife; and this ſum might properly be applied under the reſponſibility of each pariſh, the officers of whom, or thoſe who have the direction, ſhould be bound to ſee to its proper application.

The taking off the duty on ſalt would be the next thing neceſſary, and the way to do that, without hurting the revenue materially, would be by allowing thoſe who wanted ſalt to cure fiſh to have the quantity neceſſary, duty free, on giving a bond on unſtampt paper, to cure the quantity of fiſh, return the ſalt, or pay the duty. This would do ten times better than a drawback, which does not prevent the neceſſity of an advance of money, though it afterwards repays it. In fiſhing and curing fiſh, the buſineſs is to enable people who live on the coaſt to do it with advantage and with little capital, for men who have capital ſeek eaſier employments. The utility of fiſheries, for procuring food, and as a nurſery for ſeamen, has been often mentioned, but let us conſider the neceſſity of keeping in the country part of thoſe immenſe ſums that go to Ruſſia for tallow, and we ſhall ſee a farther reaſon for this encouragement. We cannot produce more tallow than we do at preſent, without growing more butchers' meat, and that is out of the queſtion, (doing it on purpoſe,) and we cannot diminiſh the conſumption by any other means to a conſiderable extent, but by increaſing the quantity of oil and reducing its price.

Taking the ſubject of fiſheries in every view, then, they deſerve encouragement, and this mode appears to be the beſt, even if the revenue ſhould ſuffer a little, and if ſome trouble ſhould be given to thoſe who have the care of letting out boats and nets. No good is attained without ſome evil, and no advantage obtained without trouble and pains; and ſurely, theſe regulations are much leſs complicated or difficult to execute than many of the laws about permits and licences under the exciſe and cuſtoms.

Society for Fisheries. On the whole, although the encouragement given to fiſheries, eſpecially on the Britiſh coaſts, may not have equalled the ſanguine, and perhaps juſt expectations of commercial writers, the ſubject has frequently engaged the attention of the legiſlature, and has been the occaſion of a moſt reſpectable, though not hitherto very proſperous aſſociation. In 1786, a number of noblemen and gentlemen were incorporated by the ſtyle of *The Britiſh Society for extending the Fiſheries and improving the Sea-coaſts of this Kingdom.* The end and purpoſe of their incorporation is declared to be the erection of free towns and villages, harbours and fiſhing ſtations, in the Highlands and iſlands of North Britain, for the improvement of fiſheries, agriculture, manufactures, and other uſeful objects of induſtry,

induſtry, in that part of the kingdom, where the diſperſed ſituation of the inhabitants has hitherto impeded their exertions; it being hoped, that the towns will become nurſeries of ſeamen for the defence of the kingdom, and put a ſtop to the dangerous ſpirit of emigration. The company are inveſted with the uſual privileges and powers of a joint ſtock company; and perſons who may be incapacitated by entails, minority, &c. are empowered to ſell lands to them. Their ſtock is divided into ſhares of 50*l.* each, and no one is permitted to hold above ten ſhares. It is transferable by purchaſe, gift, &c.: but the ſubſcribers were reſtrained from making any ſales of ſtock before the 10th of Auguſt 1789. In 1795, ſome doubts reſpecting their right to make purchaſes in Scotland were removed by act of Parliament. In 1797 they had formed three eſtabliſhments. 1. At Ullapool, in Loch Broom, on the weſt coaſt of Roſsſhire, the moſt regular and conſtant reſort of the herrings on the Britiſh coaſt. This village in 1791 had ſeven houſes, and in 1796 it had thirty-nine (whereof nine belong to the Society), and about forty thatched huts. Ten veſſels cleared out for the bounty of fiſhing in 1796. Their barrels and nets were partly made upon the ſpot. The Society have built houſes for ſmoking herrings, and a ſhed for the cod fiſhery. 2. At Tobermory, at the north end of the iſland of Mull, which has the advantage of a ſheltered harbour, acceſſible with every wind by veſſels of any burthen; and there is plenty of ſtone and wood for building. It has a cuſtom houſe, at which 38 ſmall veſſels, meaſuring 1,589 tons, entered inward, and 55, meaſuring 1,822 tons, entered outward. In 1792 there were 27 families, and in 1797 there were 47. And 3 at Lochbay, in the north-weſt part of the iſland of Skie. At each of theſe places the Society purchaſed ſufficient tracts of land, and laid out the ground in proper ſtreets for building. They have alſo erected a quay or pier, a cuſtom-houſe, a ſtore-houſe, a ſchool, and a houſe for a ſchoolmaſter, bridges where neceſſary, and have made roads, at every village. Many incloſures were made, and alſo conſiderable improvements in agriculture, where no improvements were ever known before. The Society held out particular encouragement to the trades which are connected with fiſheries and navigation; and thoſe ſequeſtered regions have for the firſt time (at leaſt for ſeveral centuries by paſt) ſeen veſſels fitted out from their harbours, and ſomething like a commencement of proſperity produced by induſtry.

All the ſettlements are near to excellent fiſhing banks, where cod and ling are in great plenty, ſo that the ſettlers need never be at a loſs for a ſteady, and nearly invariable, ſpecies of fiſhery to employ themſelves and their veſſels. The repreſentations

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of the directors of the ſociety procured from government ſome ſmall mitigation of the rigour of the execution of the ſalt laws in favour of their ſettlers. But as that is matter of favour, it may be withdrawn at pleaſure. The moſt ſolid advantage in that reſpect to the poor fiſhers was, that ſome people, partly aſſiſted with ſmall ſums lent them by the ſociety, laid in ſtores of ſalt, caſks, and other fiſhing utenſils, which they ſell to their neighbours at moderate prices. But, from the very ſlow growth of the villages, there is reaſon to apprehend, that the fiſheries, reſtricted as they are, can never afford any very flattering proſpects to the people. In 1799, the governors and directors were empowered to give certain premiums, but theſe meaſures are deemed inſufficient, and none is conſidered adequate to the full promotion of this great national concern, but a ſolemn and definitive repeal of all duties on ſalt. Should this in happier days of finance be effected, very great reſults to the wealth and ſtrength of the nation are prognoſticated.

Fairs and Markets. Great facilities are afforded to internal commerce in England by the eſtabliſhment of fairs and markets for the ſale of commodities of every deſcription. The inſtitution of fairs is not peculiar to England, although in this country, both fairs and markets have met with great encouragement. They were eſtabliſhed for the better regulation of trade and commerce, and alſo for the convenience of the king's ſubjects, both natives and foreigners, in obtaining ſupplies of every kind. The king is the ſole judge where fairs and markets ought to be kept; and therefore if he grants a market to be eſtabliſhed in a place, which happens not to be convenient for the country, yet the ſubjects can go to no other; and if they do, the owner of the vill where they meet is liable to an action at the ſuit of the grantee of the market. But if no place be limited for keeping a fair by the king's grant, the grantees may keep it where they pleaſe, or rather where they can moſt conveniently; and if it be ſo limited, they may keep it in what part of ſuch a place they will. The law forbids the holding of markets and fairs on Sundays, and the ſolemn holidays, and declares that they ſhall not be kept open beyond the time ſpecified in their charters, on pain of forfeiting double the value of the things ſold. The grant of a fair or market, includes, without expreſs words, the right of eſtabliſhing a court of *pie-poudré*, and of appointing a clerk of the market, who is to receive reaſonable fees for marking and allowing weights and meaſures.

Toll payable at a fair or market is a reaſonable ſum of money due to the owner of the fair or market, upon the ſale of things, or for ſtallage, piccage or the like. Piccage is money

paid

paid for leave to dig the ground to erect a ſtall. Stallage is money paid for leave to erect a ſtall, or to remove it from one part of the fair to another.

For the encouragement of trade, and to render contracts in fairs and markets ſecure, by the common law, every ſale made in a fair, or market overt, transfers a complete property in the thing ſold to the purchaſer; ſo that however injurious or illegal the title of the ſeller may be, yet the buying is good againſt all men. This rule however is to be underſtood with ſuch limitations and exceptions as inſure publicity in ſales, and prevent fraud and colluſion between buyers and ſellers. The city of London is a market overt every day in the week except Sundays, ſo that a ſale on any of thoſe days has the ſame effect as if on a fair or market day in another place. And in London, every ſhop in which goods are expoſed publickly to ſale, is market overt, for ſuch things as the owner profeſſes to trade in; but in the country, the market-overt is confined to the particular place or ſpot of ground ſet apart by cuſtom for the ſale of goods. However, where the tranſaction is perfectly fair on the part of the purchaſer, though the dealing is out of the precincts of London, great allowances are made in analogy to the above mentioned cuſtoms. Therefore, it ſeems, the property of goods may be changed, and effectually transferred to the buyer by a *bonâ fide* ſale, in a ſhop out of London, and that, whether the ſhopkeeper is the ſeller or buyer, if the goods are of the kind in which he trades.

Markets are of ſuch great and general utility that they can neither be diſuſed, nor in any degree ſuperſeded. Fairs are of leſs importance than formerly, becauſe the traders in large towns have eſtabliſhed agents called *riders*, who travel from place to place throughout the kingdom, and receive the orders of country ſhopkeepers, who have conſequently no occaſion to expend their money at fairs. Theſe meetings are, however, in no danger of being aboliſhed; a cuſtomary, though not neceſſarily attendant circumſtance, is the exhibition of plays, drolls, rarities, and a general merriment, which render them the delight of the people throughout the realm, and eſtabliſhments ſo popular, and ſo productive of honeſt joy, will never be diſcountenanced by a wiſe legiſlature, although exceſſes may be reſtricted by a vigilant magiſtracy.

Conveyance. The internal trade of England is alſo greatly improved by the ſpeed, ſafety and cheapneſs with which goods and perſons may be conveyed from one part of the kingdom to another. The cheapneſs is not to be eſtimated by the rate per mile at which travelling by land can be performed, (though even that, in compariſon with other neceſſaries and conveniences of life,

life, is conſiderable, but by the extraordinary diſpatch and abſolute ſafety with which journeys are performed. Theſe favourable circumſtances are owing both to the conſtitution and police of the country. The ſpirit of freedom which pervades all the ſocial eſtabliſhments of Great Britain, exempts travellers from the delay and inconvenience occaſioned by paſſports, identification of perſon at walled or garriſon towns, the frequent inſpection of goods, and the many other vexations and charges to which in other countries the people are ſubjected. And as the law aſſures to every man means of redreſs in caſe of robbery or maltreatment, he who travels relies with confidence on that protection, and without waiting for, or incurring the expenſe of a military eſcort, proceed with the aid only of a guard, hired by the proprietors of the vehicle which conveys him, or depending in a private carriage on ſuch means as he himſelf happens to have provided. Feeble as theſe reſources may ſeem, it is an indiſputable fact, that in England, in proportion to the frequency of travelling and the value of property tranſported from place to place, leſs is loſt by robbery, than in almoſt any other country. On the other hand, ſuch is the ſwiftneſs with which journies are performed, that without taking into calculation the value of time, the benefit of frequent and eaſy intercourſe, or the value of money, it may ſafely be ſaid, that long journies may now be made at an expenſe actually ſmaller than they could one hundred years ago. In treating of the conveyance from one part of the kingdom to another, ſeveral particulars demand notice.

Post-horses and Stage-Coaches. Beſides the mail coaches for conveyance of letters and paſſengers, ſtage-coaches are eſtabliſhed, which travel from and to all parts of the kingdom, carrying perſons and goods, at a certain fixed rate. Theſe vehicles perform their journies with undeviating conſtancy, are furniſhed, at ſtated places, with relays of horſes, and meals are provided for the paſſengers, at a limited price, at the inns where they ſtop in the courſe of the day. Poſt-chaiſes do not perform ſtated journies, but are required according to the occaſion of the traveller, and make their journies with greater or leſs diſpatch in proportion to the number of horſes by which they are drawn.

All theſe conveyances produce a conſiderable revenue to government. Thoſe who let poſt horſes take out an annual licence on a five ſhilling ſtamp, and on every horſe let out by them is charged a duty of $1\frac{1}{2}d.$ per mile, or if the diſtance is not aſcertained $1s. 9d.$ in the whole. For prevention of the evaſion of theſe duties, many judicious regulations are framed, and both the duty on poſt horſes, and thoſe on ſtage coaches are let to

farm, in ſeparate diſtricts, and by public bidding. The keepers of ſtage-coaches are, in like manner, obliged to take out an annual five ſhilling licence, declaring from what place, and to what place ſuch carriage is intended to be uſed, diſtinguiſhing the number of miles between the two extreme towns or places, and the number of journies intended to be made either in the day or week; and they give bond to his majeſty in 20*l.* or treble the ſum the duty for the journies inſerted in ſuch licence for one month would amount to, at the option of the commiſſioners, for accounting for and paying ſuch ſums as may be due for ſuch journies. For preventing the great miſchiefs which have frequently ariſen from an improper number of perſons being allowed to go as paſſengers on the roofs or boxes of coaches, chaiſes, and other carriages, if the driver of any ſuch carriage ſhall ſuffer more than *ſix* perſons at the ſame time to ride or go upon the roof, or more than *two* perſons beſides the driver on the box, ſuch driver ſo offending, and being convicted on confeſſion, the view of a juſtice, or by the oath of one witneſs, before any juſtice of the peace, where ſuch offence ſhall be committed, ſhall, for every perſon ſo riding or going as an outſide paſſenger above the number aforeſaid, forfeit 40*s.* and in caſe the owner ſhall be the driver of ſuch carriage, then 4*l.*; and in default of payment, be committed to the gaol or houſe of correction for one month, unleſs the penalty be ſooner paid. And it is further enacted, that if the driver of any coach, chaiſe, or other carriage of the like ſort, drawn by three or more horſes, and travelling for hire, ſhall ſuffer more than one perſon to go on the coach box beſides himſelf, and four on the roof; or if ſuch carriage be drawn by leſs than three horſes, more than one perſon on the box (except the driver of ſuch carriage drawn by leſs than three horſes, which ſhall not go more than twenty-five miles from the poſt-office in London, and which ſhall not carry more than one perſon on the box, and four on the roof, at the ſame time); he ſhall pay to the toll-taker at every turnpike gate through which ſuch carriage ſhall paſs 5*s.* for every perſon above ſuch number as aforeſaid: and if any ſuch paſſenger beyond the number ſo limited, ſhall be ſet down, or taken up, whereby the ſaid payment of five ſhillings may be evaded; the driver ſo offending, and being convicted, either by confeſſion, view of a juſtice, or oath of one witneſs before any juſtice of the county or place where ſuch offence is committed, ſhall be committed to the common gaol or houſe of correction, not exceeding one calendar month, nor leſs than fourteen days, at the diſcretion of ſuch juſtice; which ſaid ſum of five ſhillings a paſſenger, ſhall be collected and recovered, in like manner as the turnpike tolls at ſuch gate are by the act for repairing ſuch road authorized to be collected and recovered. And there ſhall

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be painted on the outside of each of the doors of every such carriage (mail coaches excepted) in large and legible characters, the christian and surname of the proprietor; and if more than one proprietor, and any one of them reside within the bills of mortality, such person's name shall be the name to be put upon such carriage. To these provisions others were added, obliging the proprietors to take licences progressively, advancing in proportion to the number to be carried, and to paint on their carriages the number they are licensed to carry.

Carriers. All persons carrying goods for hire, as masters and owners of ships, lightermen, stage-coachmen, &c. come under the denomination of common carriers, and are chargeable, by the general custom of the realm, for their faults and miscarriages. Also if a person, who is a common carrier, takes upon himself to carry goods, though no reward is promised, yet if goods are lost or damaged, by his default, an action will lie against him. The postmaster general does not come under the denomination of a carrier: he has no hire; and enters into no contract. The post-office is a branch of revenue, and a branch of police, created by act of parliament. The salary annexed to the office of post-master, is for no other consideration, than the trouble of executing it. He is, therefore, not liable for any constructive negligence.

Highways and Bridges. The advantage derived to travellers and the trading interest in general from the state of the highways and bridges throughout the kingdom is evident, and of the highest importance. The laws for preserving and repairing highways and bridges, and for preventing nuisances and injuries which might affect them, have been noticed in the second volume of this work.

Canals and Railways. Another great improvement in the transport of produce from one part of the country to another remains to be noticed; it is the construction of Canals and Railways, now so extensively, and so beneficially pursued in most parts of the kingdom. The following observations on, and account of those in the United Kingdom are abridged from an article very ably compiled in Dr. Rees's new Cyclopædia.

The importance and utility of canals have been so long and so generally acknowledged, that it is hardly necessary to introduce the subject with any observations to this purpose. Dr. Smith observes, in his Wealth of Nations, that good roads, canals, and navigable rivers, by diminishing the expense of carriage, put the remote parts of the country more nearly upon a level with those in the neighbourhood of large towns; and on that account they are the greatest of all improvements. They encourage the cultivation of the remote parts, which must always be the most extensive circle of the country. They are advantageous

tageous to towns, by breaking down the monopoly of the country in its neighbourhood; and they are advantageous to all parts of the country; for though they introduce ſome rival commodities into the old markets, they open many new markets to its produce. "It is not more than 50 years ago," ſays he in 1776, when the firſt edition of his work was printed, "that ſome of the countries in the neighbourhood of London, petitioned the parliament againſt the extenſion of the turnpike roads into the remoter counties. Thoſe remoter counties, they pretended, from the cheapneſs of labour, would be able to ſell their graſs and corn cheaper in the London market than themſelves, and would thereby reduce their rents, and ruin their cultivation. Their rents, however, have riſen, and their cultivation has been improved ſince that time." All canals, ſays Mr. Phillips, in the Introduction to his General Hiſtory of Inland Navigation, may be conſidered as ſo many roads of a certain kind, on which one horſe will draw as much as 30 horſes on ordinary turnpike roads, or on which one man alone will tranſport as many goods as three men and 18 horſes uſually do on common roads. The public would be great gainers were they to lay out upon the making of every mile of a canal twenty times as much as they expend upon a mile of turnpike road; but a mile of canal is often made at a leſs expenſe than the mile of turnpike: conſequently there is a great inducement to multiply the number of canals."

The advantages reſulting from canals, as they open an eaſy and cheap communication between diſtant parts of a country, will be ultimately experienced by perſons of various deſcriptions: and more eſpecially by the manufacturer, the occupier or owner of land, and the merchant. The manufacturer will thus be enabled to collect his materials, his fuel, and the means of ſubſiſtence, from remote diſtricts, with leſs labour and expenſe; and to convey his goods to a profitable market. As canals multiply, old manufactures revive and flouriſh, new ones are eſtabliſhed, and the adjoining country is rendered populous and productive. To the occupier of land, canals are uſeful in a variety of ways. In ſome caſes, they ſerve the purpoſes of draining and irrigation; in others, they furniſh manure at a cheap rate; and they facilitate the conveyance of the produce to places where it may be diſpoſed of to the greateſt advantage. The land owner muſt of courſe be benefited, by the increaſing value and advanced rent of his eſtate, in conſequence of the improvement it receives from the induſtry of the occupier, excited and encouraged by an immediate recompence. The wholeſale trader and merchant are likewiſe enabled to extend their commerce by means of canals; as they can thus export greater quantities

quantities and varieties of goods from places remote from the ſea, and eaſily ſupply a wider extent of inland country with the commodities that are imported from foreign nations. Nor are they merely the means of extending and increaſing foreign commerce, but they ſerve alſo to create and augment an internal trade, which, with all the advantages attendant on foreign commerce, may probably far exceed it in extent, value, and importance. We might add, that an inland communication between parts of a country, at a great diſtance from one another, contribute to the ſecurity, as well as to the extenſion of commerce, in the boiſterous months of winter, and in times of war, when the navigation of the ſeas would be attended with danger. "Were we to make the ſuppoſition of two ſtates," ſays Mr. Phillips, "the one having all its cities, towns, and villages upon navigable rivers and canals that have an eaſy communication with each other; the other poſſeſſing the common conveyance of land-carriage; and ſuppoſing, at the ſame time, both ſtates to be equal as to ſoil, climate, and induſtry; commodities and manufactures, in the former ſtate, might be exported 30 *per cent.* cheaper than in the latter; or, in other words, the firſt ſtate would be a third richer and more affluent than the ſecond." Should it be objected, that navigable canals waſte or occupy too great a portion of land in the countries through which they paſs, the objection may be obviated by the conſideration, that one mile of a canal, 14 yards wide, takes up little more than five acres of land.

The navigation of our rivers, by ſhips or ſmaller veſſels, was, from a very early period, an object of conſiderable importance, but the very inedaquate proviſion made by general laws for protecting internal navigation from the encroachments of individuals, and the effects of neglect, probably ſuggeſted the propriety of thoſe particular grants or ſtatutes which enabled corporations, and in ſome inſtances individuals, to take particular rivers under their charge, and to receive tolls or dues from the veſſels navigating within their particular diſtrict. In proceſs of time, as population increaſed, and the advantages of water carriage became more apparent, further grants and acts of parliament were made, authoriſing companies or individuals to extend the navigation on certain rivers further into the country, generally to reach ſome city or great town; theſe acts, ſome of which we ſhall particularize hereafter, generally enabled the parties to deepen, and in ſome inſtances to ſtraiten the courſe of their rivers, to embank them where too wide, to erect jetties and ſluices, to make flaſhes for ſurmounting the ſhallows or rapids, and in later times to erect pound-locks for gaining the aſcent to the different mill-dams upon the river. But the conſtant tendency

tendency of rivers, eſpecially rapid ones, to caſt up banks of ſand or gravel in particular places, their deficiency of water in times of drought, and ſuperabundance in times of flood, the ravaging effects of theſe laſt in deſtroying the works erected for the uſe of the navigation; the great labour and difficulty of towing or dragging veſſels againſt the ſtream, eſpecially where there was not a towing-path for horſes, near to the channel of the river, and yet not ſubject to be overflowed and rendered uſeleſs in time of floods; the very lengthened courſe of moſt rivers, ariſing from their ſerpentine, and, in ſome inſtances, varying channel, was not alſo among the ſmalleſt of the difficulties attending them: theſe, at length ſuggeſted the propriety of leaving the bed of the rivers in ſome inſtances for a new cut for the navigation acroſs a neck of land, with a pound-lock at its lower extremity. As theſe ſide-cuts and pound-locks were increaſed in number, to ſhorten the courſe of the rivers, their ſuperior advantages became ſo apparent, that a company of gentlemen and merchants, who had in 1755 obtained an act of parliament authoriſing them to make Sankey Brook navigable from the Merſey river to near St. Hellins, in Lancaſhire, with the powers at that time uſual in navigation acts, for the purchaſing of land and other things neceſſary for the intended navigation, at a fair eſtimate to be made by commiſſioners named in the acts; they determined, after mature deliberation, to avoid the bed or channel of the brook altogether, and to make one entire new cut or canal, as near as convenient to the bed of the river, with locks thereon, in ſuch places as the falls of the ground ſhould render neceſſary; and this canal they accordingly effected about the year 1760, ſupplying its higheſt pound or level with water, by a cut or fender from the Brook. Thus navigable canals had their riſe in England; but, a leſs fortunate ſet of gentlemen, who under the power of an act obtained in the year 1730, for making the river Stroudwater navigable, from the river Severn to near the town of Stroud, although the act empowered them "to make as many new cuts as they may judge proper, and of what length and breadth they ſhall think convenient;" yet when they had, about the year 1774, determined upon following the example of the Sankey proprietors, and in imitation of the duke of Bridgewater's, and ſeveral other canals, which had then been executed or were begun; by cutting a canal on the ſide of the Stroudwater river, they were ſtopped by an expenſive law-ſuit, carried on by certain mill and land owners in the neighbourhood: whereby the diſtinction between the river navigation acts, and canal acts was eſtabliſhed by the Court of Exchequer, before which the caſe came to be argued.

About the year 1757, the Duke of Bridgewater, acquainted fully, no doubt, with what had been near 80 years before effected, on the canal of Languedoc, in the South of France, and ſince in different parts of the Continent, conceived the idea of a canal for the purpoſe of conveying coals from his eſtate at Worſley in Lancaſhire, to Salford near Mancheſter. His grace profiting, as no doubt he did, by the works of that great French engineer, Francis Riquet, and by the advice of that great natural and ſelf-taught genius James Brindley, whom his grace called off, about the year 1758, from his employment as a millwright and engine-maker in this country, to perfect, and carry into execution, the great and important ſchemes which he had projected, and for which he propoſed and brought into parliament the firſt act, with powers adequate to the great and extraordinary undertaking of cutting a canal of ſeveral miles in length, not in the direction of any river or ſtream of water, but croſſing the courſe of ſeveral brooks, roads, &c. and through the lands of a vaſt number of different perſons, all of whom were to be fully compenſated, though deprived of the power of withholding their lands or waters, or in any way obſtructing the deſign. In theſe reſpects, the Duke of Bridgewater has not improperly been called the father of canals in England, while his engineer, Mr. Brindley, by his maſterly performances on the Duke of Bridgewater's canal, altered and extended as the ſcheme was, by three ſubſequent acts of parliament, has ſecured to himſelf, and will, it ſhould ſeem, from a compariſon of the great features, and minutiæ of execution in this the firſt canal, with moſt others in this country, even of the lateſt conſtruction, long continue to hold, that rank among the Engliſh engineers, to which M. Riquet ſeems entitled among foreigners.

The courſe, thus happily opened by the Duke of Bridgewater, was quickly followed by new ſets of adventurers, who were ſeen applying to parliament in almoſt every ſeſſion, for powers to raiſe a joint ſtock on transferable ſhares, and to make and maintain canals in moſt parts of the kingdom, many of which have been long completed, and have contributed in a moſt eminent degree to the improvement of the country, as well as to the enriching of the individuals concerned in a great number of inſtances; in the laudable zeal of adventurers to extend, and of the people of great towns and proprietors of mines and great manufactories to receive, the benefits of inland navigation; numerous ſchemes have been adopted, where from the actual ſcarcity of water, or its previous appropriation to mills, a canal with locks was impracticable.

The neceſſity of an expeditious and cheap mode of conveying coals from the pits to the keels or ſhips, had, as early as the

the year 1680, introduced the uſe of wooden railways, for the waggons to move upon, between the Tyne river and ſome of the principal pits, and theſe by degrees became extended to a great number of other coal-works. Since the more general introduction of caſt iron, and its cheaper conveyance by means of canals, iron rails have been ſubſtituted in the place of the wooden ones before mentioned; and the uſe of inclined planes, or parts of the rail-way having a much greater declivity or ſlope than it is practicable to drag carriages up by means of horſes, has become very frequent in parts where the riſe of the ground required it, machinery being on theſe inclined planes adopted to ſupply the place of horſes.

Several years ago, an act of parliament was obtained by Homfray, Hill, and Co. for an iron rail-way, or tram-road from Cardiff to Merthyr, by the ſide of, and as a rival ſcheme of the Glamorganſhire canal, for 9 miles or more in length; ſince which, ſeveral other acts have been paſſed for rail-ways, and ſeveral of them executed, to the great benefit of the country, and the companies who conſtructed them; it has alſo become common within the ſame period, to authoriſe canal companies to conſtruct rail-ways, as collateral branches from their canal, to mines or other great works, or to large towns within certain diſtances of ſuch canals; by which their benefits have been amazingly extended; moſt of the latter acts have alſo authoriſed the adoption of rail-ways, of inclined planes, or of any of the expedients above-mentioned, or others as ſubſtitutes for locks, in ſuch parts thereof, as are not readily to be ſupplied with water, adequate to the waſte which locks occaſion. So many of theſe compound ſchemes for leſſening the expenſe of carriage have been already executed, or are in hand, that it is conſidered proper to include the ſubject of rail-ways, with that of Canals.

Great Britain as well as every other iſland, and even a continent taken as a whole, has a range of high land paſſing nearly its whole length, which divides the ſprings and rain waters that fall to the oppoſite coaſts: this range, dividing the eaſtern and weſtern rivers of Britain, may be termed the grand ridge, and it is to be remarked that no leſs than 22 canals now do or are intended to paſs this grand ridge, forming as many navigable connections between the rivers of the eaſt and weſt ſeas.

When it is propoſed to form any canal, the choice of a ſkilful and experienced engineer is an object of primary conſideration. Without due attention to this object, many impracticable projects may be adopted, and large ſums of money may

be expended without accompliſhing any important and uſeful purpoſe. To him it belongs to make the neceſſary ſurveys and calculations, and to confer on his employers all the benefits to be derived from knowledge and experience, and theſe, in ſuch an undertaking, are more extenſive and multifarious than can be deſcribed in this work.

When the engineer has perfected his ſurvey, the application for an act of parliament becomes an object of conſideration. The acts for canals and rail-ways are now ſo numerous that their principles are perfectly underſtood; their great requiſites are, the eſtabliſhment of a company as a corporation, with a fixed name: power for the projectors to obtain ſuch lands as they may want, on making a proper compenſation; to raiſe money, to make bye-laws, and generally to do all acts which may benefit the concern, taking care that a proportionate benefit ſhall alſo be ſecured to the public.

The act of parliament for a canal being paſſed, and therein the time and place for the firſt meeting of the ſubſcribers or proprietors thereof being fixed; one of the firſt buſineſſes of ſuch meeting will be the election of a general committee of management, conſiſting of the moſt independent, reſpectable, and generally informed perſons among the proprietors. The committee of management will then proceed to elect a chairman and ſubordinate officers; to fix upon their place of meeting, and to arrange the order of their buſineſs.

It will not often happen that the engineer can be ſpared from the projection and ſuperintendance of other great concerns, to attend to the cutting of the canal and erection of the ſeveral works, without the aſſiſtance of a reſident engineer, or more than one, if the line be of conſiderable length, and diſtant parts of it are intended to be proceeded with at the ſame time; and the committee will do well to leave it to their engineer to recommend all ſuch aſſiſtant or reſident engineers from among thoſe who have been brought up or employed under him, or are well known and approved by him, for their mathematical knowledge and practical ſkill, experience and attention in the ſeveral kinds of works that are to be executed. The attention of the committee ſhould be directed to fixing upon ſome land ſurveyor and valuer of reſpectability and great practical knowledge, who has been uſed to and acquired addreſs in the negociation and ſettlement of purchaſes and exchanges of property of different kinds; and if he has been before employed upon canals he will be ſo much the more fit. In this ſtage of the buſineſs it may be well alſo for the committee to conſider whether any local committees, or a ſelect committee, may be neceſſary,

to pay the more minute attention to, and to bring before them, the concerns of particular diſtricts of the canal, and to ſerve other purpoſes.

The body of the proprietors, aſſembled in a general meeting for the purpoſe of completing the organization of the affairs of the company, will proceed to the choice of a certain number of auditors of their accounts, and to ſettle the ſalaries of all the perſons that are employed.

The engineer being now informed of the exact bounds within which the law has confined his operations; and of the ſeveral reſtrictions or alterations that may have been impoſed or made ſince his former ſurveys, will, in all probability, find it neceſſary to look over the line and all the propoſed works again, accompanied by the intended reſident engineers; and, in ſuch reviſal, it will be proper to divide the line of canal, and the ſeveral works thereof, into the neceſſary number of parts, and to give conciſe and definite names to each, that are to be uſed in future, in contracts and bills.

The land-ſurveyor ſhould next proceed to treat, under the direction of the committee and the engineers, with the ſeveral parties who are entitled to the land that is wanted; for this purpoſe it will be right for the ſurveyor to prepare correct and explicit plans and admeaſurements of every piece of land, and, in many inſtances, to deliver copies of the ſame to the parties; to conſider well the intrinſic value of the land to the owner, and of any extrinſic or artificial value which it poſſeſſes, with ample allowance for the injury that his remaining property will ſuſtain by being detached, or by the fields being cut into inconvenient and aukward ſhapes, or on any other account. The contracts being completed, the titles of the parties aſcertained, and the purchaſes made, the formation of the canal proceeds, with its reſervoirs, locks, bridges, tunnels, towing paths, and many other appendages. In theſe operations, as in thoſe relating to Railways, ſcience is involved, which it is impoſſible here to detail, and ſeveral ſpecific improvements have been ſecured to the inventors by letters patent.

Referring therefore for more extenſive information to the work from which this extract is made, and the authorities there cited; it is intended to follow the line the conductors of it have adopted, in enumerating, alphabetically, the canals and railways in the united kingdom.

1. ABERDARE CANAL. Act 33d of Geo. III.; its general direction (beginning at its loweſt end,) about N. W.; it is 7½ miles in length to Aberdare, beſides an extenſion thence, in nearly the ſame direction, by a rail-way for 8½ miles further; it is ſituate in the county of Glamorgan in South Wales.

2. ABERDEENSHIRE CANAL. Acts 36 and 41 of Geo. III.—The general direction is about N. W. for 19 miles in length, in Aberdeen county in Scotland; the principal objects ſeem the ſupply of the town Aberdeen, the exportation of granite ſtone from the famous quarries on its banks, and to form a communication between the harbour of Aberdeen and the vales of the river Don. It was completed and opened in June 1805. The company might by the firſt act raiſe 30,000 *l.*, ſhares 50*l.* each; and by the 2d act 20,000 *l.* more might be raiſed on 20*l.* ſhares, bearing 5 per cent. intereſt.

3. ADUR RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly north for 12 miles in the county of Suſſex: its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

4. *Alford and Wainfleet.* In July 1805, a ſurvey was ordered for an intended canal from Wainfleet haven to the town of Alford, the general direction of which line is nearly north, and about 12 or 13 miles in length, in the county of Lincoln: its principal objects ſeem the ſupply of Alford, and the export of huſbandry produce.

5. ANCHOLME NAVIGATION. Act 42 of Geo. III.—General direction nearly ſouth: almoſt ſtraight (except the laſt four miles,) and about 26 miles in length, in Lincolnſhire. Its objects, beſides a better drainage of theſe fens by a wide and ſtraight cut, inſtead of the old courſe of the river Ancholme, ſeem the ſupply of Market-Raiſin and of Caiſtor (by means of the Caiſtor canal, which joins it at South Kelſey), and the export of huſbandry produce.

6. ANDOVER CANAL. Act about the 30th of Geo. III.—General direction nearly north, and pretty ſtraight, following the courſe nearly of the Anton river (which is navigable to Rumſey) for 22½ miles in length, in Hampſhire. Its general objects ſeem to ſupply fuel to the country, and to export its ſurplus of farming produce.

7. *Arklow and Ovoca.* In 1792, Mr. William Chapman ſurveyed the vales of the Ovoca river in Ireland, and recommended to render the improvement of Arklow harbour, which was then intended, more beneficial to the adjacent country, by connecting therewith a ſyſtem of ſmall canals up the rapidly aſcending vales of the Ovoca.

8. ARUN RIVER. This navigation has nearly a north direction for 15 or 16 miles in the county of Suſſex. To ſupply coals, and export farm produce, ſeem its principal objects.

9. ARUNDEL CANAL. Act 31 Geo. III.—General direction weſt for about 11 miles. The ſupplying of the inhabitants with coals, and exporting of huſbandry produce, ſeem its principal objects.

10. ASHBY

10. Ashby de la Zouch Canal. Act 34 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal, though in a ſerpentine courſe, is nearly north, 40 miles in the counties of Warwick, Leiceſter, and Derby; the termination is by a rail-way of $3\frac{5}{8}$ miles at Ticknal lime-works; there alſo is a rail-way branch of $6\frac{3}{4}$ miles to Cloudſhill lime-work; another to Mr. Wilke's Meaſham collieries of 5 miles: a cut of $2\frac{1}{8}$ miles to Swadlincote coal-works; another of $\frac{7}{8}$ mile to Staunton lime-works; another is to be made to Stanton-Harrold park (if deſired by the earl of Ferrers, the proprietor thereof); and there is another ſhort cut of 200 yards to Hinckley wharf. On this canal are two tunnels, one near Aſhby-de-la-Zouch town of 700 yards in length, and the other near Snareton of 200 yards. At Shackerton and at Snareton there are aqueducts; and at Boothorpe a reſervoir with a ſteam-engine for pumping up its water into a feeder for the ſummit-level of the canal. The rail-way branches, and ſome part of the canal were completed previouſly to May 1802, but it was not until about May 1805, that the whole line was completed and opened. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 200,000 *l.* the amount of ſhares 100 *l.* each. In June 1796, a ſurvey was made for connecting the north end of this canal, by means of the propoſed Commercial canal, with the Trent and Merſey and the Cheſter canals, and opening the long wiſhed for communication between London, Hull, Cheſter, Liverpool, Mancheſter, &c. for river-boats of 40 tons burthen. In conſequence of the failure of this ſcheme, in the January following, it was propoſed to extend this canal to the Trent at Burton, and to the Trent and Merſey at Shobnall.

11. Avon River, (Bath.) General direction about S. E. in length 26 or 27 miles, by a crooked courſe in the county of Somerſet, and ſkirting that of Glouceſter. The objects of this navigation are as various, as the imports and exports of ſuch large places as Bath and Briſtol, and a populous neighbourhood require; beſides its connection with the Kennet and Avon canal, and the other canals therewith connected.

12. Avon River, (Saliſbury.) The direction of this navigable river is very nearly north, and its length near 30 miles, in the counties of Hants and Wilts. The general objects of this navigation are the ſupply of Saliſbury, and the adjacent country, and the export of its agriculture products.

13. Avon River, (Stratford.) General direction about N. E. by a crooked courſe of near 40 miles in Worceſterſhire and Warwickſhire. The trade is very various, depending in a great meaſure on the connection which it forms between the Severn river and the Stratford canal.

14. Axe River. The general direction of this navigation is

almoſt S. E. for about 11 miles in length by a crooked courſe in the county of Somerſet. Its chief objects are the import of coals, and export of farm produce.

15. *Axemouth and Langport.* In 1769, Mr. James Brindley ſurveyed this line, which is nearly north, and about 30 miles in length, in Devonſhire, Dorſetſhire, and Somerſetſhire, croſſing the ſouth-weſtern branch of the grand ridge. The objects of it ſeem to have been the ſupply of coals, exporting the products of the country, and opening a communication between the ſouth coaſt and the Briſtol channel, by means of the Parret river.

16. AYRE AND CALDER NAVIGATION. Act 9 or 10 Will. III. The general direction of the Ayre river is nearly weſt, for about 46 miles by a ſerpentine courſe. The objects of this navigation were at firſt very conſiderable, in the imports and exports of the populous, manufacturing, and coal country through which it paſſes, and they are greatly increaſed, ſince it has formed part of the grand communications between the port of Hull, or the German Ocean, and the towns of Mancheſter and Liverpool, or the Iriſh Sea, by means of the Leeds and Liverpool, Rochdale, and Huddersfield canals, and others joining them.

17. BARNSLEY CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III. The firſt part of the courſe of this canal is ſouth, and the remainder weſt, about 15 miles in length, in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire. The principal objects of it ſeem to be the export of coals and paving-ſtones, and forming a ſhort communication with Rotherham and Sheffield (by the Dearne and Dove canal, with which it connects at Eyming wood near Barnſley), and Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, Mancheſter, Liverpool, &c. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 97,000*l.* ſhares 100*l.* each. This canal was completed and opened 8th of June 1799.

18. BARROW RIVER (Ireland). This is one of the rivers, for the improvement of whoſe navigation the Iriſh parliament granted ſeveral ſums of the public money, between the years 1753 and 1771, amounting to 13,600*l.* At Portarlington and at Moneſteraven this river was to be joined by different branches of the Grand Canal.

19. BASINGSTOKE CANAL. This line of Canal was firſt propoſed in 1772, as an extenſion of, or appendage to, the canal intended for ſhortening the courſe of the navigation of the river Thames, between Reading and Maidenhead; but it was ſome years before the firſt act for this was obtained, in 1778; the other act is the 33 Geo. III. The general direction of this canal is nearly weſt, by rather a crooked courſe of 37 miles in length, in the counties of Surry and Hants. The principal objects ſeem the import of coals, and export of timber and agricultural produce, from and to the Thames. At Grewel is a tunnel,

tunnel, part of which interſects the chalk ſtrata, (about ¾ mile in length,) that had the misfortune of falling in; but it has been ſubſtantially repaired. At Alderſhot there is a large reſervoir for the ſupply of this canal, (which was begun in 1788 and completed in 1796, at the expenſe to the proprietors of 160,000*l.*) and a feeder from the river Lodden. There are 72 bridges over the canal, and ſeveral culverts acroſs, to convey the water from the upper to the lower lands. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 186,000*l.*

20. *Baſingſtoke and Hampſtead.* About the year 1794, a line of canal was projected, and notices given, extending from the Baſingſtoke canal at that town, to the Kennet and Avon canal at Hampſtead, 2 miles above Newbury; the length of the line was ſaid to be 22 miles.

21. BELFAST to LOCH NEAGH. This line of canal was begun under an act of the Iriſh parliament ſeveral years ago, for forming a communication with the ſea at Carrick-fergus Bay and the above inland lake or loch, as alſo for exporting marble from the quarries near its line.

22. BELPER CANAL. In September 1801, notices were given for a propoſed canal, rail-ways, &c. from the Cromford canal at Bull-bridge, to Black-brook-bridge, through the pariſhes of Crick, Heage, Aſhley, Hay, Belper, and Duffield; all in Derbyſhire.

23. *Biggleſwade and Hertford.* Several years ago a propoſal was made, for joining the Ivel river at Biggleſwade with the Lea river at Hertford, by means of a canal paſſing the town of Hitchin, by which an internal communication between Lynn and London would be opened; but the difficulty of ſupplying a ſummit-level near Stevenage with water, ſeems a greater obſtacle than the expected trade would pay for ſurmounting.

24. BIRMINGHAM (old) CANAL. Acts the 8th, 9th, 11th, 23d, 24th, and 34th of Geo. III. the laſt but one of which acts, unites the concerns of this company with thoſe of the Birmingham and Fazeley canal; but as theſe canals were conſtructed and remain under diſtinct proviſions in the acts, and take different directions from the town of Birmingham, where they meet, they are ſeparately deſcribed. The general direction of this canal is about S. E. and 22¼ miles in length by a crooked courſe, through the counties of Stafford, a detached part of Salop and Warwick: The collateral cuts are very numerous, the principal one extends from near Bromwich to the town of Walſal, by a crooked courſe of, 8¼ miles; from this branch nine or more branches ſtrike off to as many coal-works, &c. on each ſide of it; the lengths of all which are ſeveral miles. From the line there is alſo a cut of about one mile, to Oker-hill coal-works; another

another to Meſſrs. Bolton and Watt's famous Soho foundery; and another to Newhall-ring baſon and wharf in Birmingham. This canal was originally cut 28 feet wide at top, 16 at bottom, and 4½ deep; but by conſtant wear and widening it is now 40 feet wide at the top on the average. The locks are 70 feet long and 7 wide in the clear, and the boats carry about 22 tons. The celebrated Mr. James Brindley was the original engineer, and on the 6th of November 1769, he completed 10 miles of the line and branches next Birmingham, by which coals were firſt brought by water to that great town from near Wedneſbury, and their price to the inhabitants was lowered at once from 15*s.* and 18*s.* to 7*s.* 6*d.* per ton! The proprietors were authoriſed to raiſe 115,000*l.* before the conſolidation of this and the Birmingham and Fazely concerns. At firſt the ſhares of this were 100*l.* each: but were by the ſecond act, 9th Geo. III. re-reduced in number made 110*l.* ſhares; thoſe created ſince the 24th Geo. III. are 170*l.* ſhares. About the year 1790, a cut was propoſed from this canal (inſtead of the Dudley junction) to Netherton collieries 12½ miles, by a tunnel through the grand-ridge near Oldberry, of 2,078 yards, and 184 feet under the hill: in 1796, a foundery and large works belonging to Meſſrs. Bolton and Watt, were erected on the banks of this canal 5 miles from Soho. This canal extending acroſs a country full of coal, it was apprehended that the ſinking of the old pits might damage the ſame, and the company have power to enter and examine mines to prevent their working within 12 yards of the canal, except by paſſages of 4 feet wide, and 6 feet high: for want of more ſtrict attention to this, ſome of the branches near Wedneſbury have been undermined and broke in, ſo as to cauſe the canal to be abandoned in that part. From ſome of the old worn out coal-mine ſhafts near Bilſtone, a lambent blue flame ariſes in the night, of which a great deal has been ſaid and written. Proprietors of mines within 1000 yards of this canal, or its branches, may make rail-ways thereto.

25. Birmingham and Fazeley Canal. Acts 23d, 24th, 25th and 34th of Geo. III. The ſecond of theſe acts is for conſolidating this concern with the old Birmingham above; but each part of the canal remains ſubject to its own original regulations, and the laſt but one is for conſolidating 5½ miles of the Coventry canal herewith, ſubject to the original powers of the Coventry act (8th Geo. III.) under which it was ſet out and made. The general direction of this canal is S. W. excluſive of the late Coventry part, which lies in a direction between N. and N. W. from the original termination at Fazeley: the length of the whole is 20½ miles in the counties of Stafford and Warwick:

Warwick: The great objects of this canal are, the export of the manufactures of Birmingham towards London or Hull, and of coals; the ſupply of grain and other articles to Birmingham and its populous and buſy neighbourhood. The width is about 30 feet, and its depth 4½ feet. The locks are 70 feet long and 7 wide in the clear, carrying boats with about 22 tons of lading. The ſums of money to be raiſed for this canal, were not diſtinguiſhed in the acts from what was intended for the extenſion and improvement of the old Brimingham canal, the amount of each ſhare was 170*l.* but the act 24th Geo. III. limiting the number of ſhares to 500, they are now variable.

26. *Biſhopſtortford and Cambridge.* A project for a canal in this direction has been recommended, and its completion propoſed for little more than 20,000*l.* but it is not proceeded in.

27. *Biſhopſtortford to Wilton.* In 1789, Mr. John Rennie was employed by ſeveral gentlemen of Eſſex to ſurvey and report on a line of canal from Hiſs, near Wilton, on the Brandon or Little Ouſe river, at the edge of the fens in Suffolk, to the Stort river at Biſhopſtortford; the eſtimate was 175,000*l.* and a bill was brought into parliament, in 1790, but it met a fatal oppoſition.

28. Blackwater Navigation (Ireland). This river falls into Loch Neagh, and for extending a navigation to the Dungannon and Tyrone collieries, the Iriſh parliament, between 1753 and 1770, granted various ſums of the public money, amounting to 11,000*l.* a canal with 8 locks, terminating in a baſon, was conſtructed before Mr. Davis Dukart the engineer was employed thereon; who, finding the three miles with 200 feet riſe, which remained to do to reach the Tyrone collieries, to be too great for a canal with locks, he conſtructed, about 1776, four water-levels, with three inclined-planes, of 70, 60, and 50 feet riſe, to connect them, on which ſmall boats were made to aſcend and deſcend, theſe being the firſt inclined-planes for boats brought into uſe in the United Kingdom; it appears, however, that theſe were ſoon laid aſide in this place, and a railway was ſubſtituted. This navigation was intended to connect with the Newry canal.

29. Blyth River. This river, between Northumberland and a detached part of the county of Durham, appears to be navigable but a ſmall diſtance above Blyth harbour; but it has ſeveral conſiderable rail-ways connecting with it, for bringing down the produce of the collieries to the ſhipping.

30. Boyne River (Ireland). This is one of the rivers on the eaſt coaſt of Ireland, for which the parliament, between 1768 and 1771, granted 9,507*l.* for improving its navigation.

tion. At Edenderry it was propoſed to be joined by a cut from the Grand Canal.

31. BRADFORD CANAL. Acts 11 and 42 Geo. III. The general direction of this ſhort navigation is ſouth nearly, and 3 miles in length, in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the export of coals, iron, and ſtone, the produce of the neighbourhood of Bradford, and the ſupply of Bradford town. At Bradford, rail-ways of conſiderable extent connect with it, one of them goes to the collieries and iron-works on Wibſey Slack; and the deſcent is ſo ſteep that the waggons run down without horſes, having their velocity regulated by a man who rides behind, and uſes the convoy or brake upon the wheels, as occaſion requires. The company were empowered to raiſe 6000*l.* in 100*l.* ſhares.

32. BRECKNOCK AND ABERGAVENNY CANAL. Acts 33 and 44 of Geo. III. General direction about N. W. 33 miles in length, in the counties of Monmouth and Brecknock in South Wales. Its objects are the exportation of coals, iron, and other mineral products of the country round Abergavenny, by means of the Monmouthſhire canal, and the ſupply of Pontypool, Abergavenny, Crickhowel, and Brecon towns, that are near its courſe. It has ſeveral rail-way branches: *viz.* to Abergavenny 1 mile; to Wain-Dew collieries and iron-works 4¾ miles (near 2½ miles of this laſt being double on each ſide of the brook); and, to Llangroiney 1¼ mile. The company were at firſt authoriſed to raiſe 150,000*l.* and a further ſum by their ſecond act, ſhares 100*l.* each. In May 1805 it was propoſed to extend a rail-way branch from this canal to connect with the river Wye.

33. *Bredon Rail-way.* About the year 1793 it was in contemplation to make a rail-way and canal from the famous lime-works at Bredon to the Trent river, oppoſite to Weſton Cliff; and to effect it, a clauſe is inſerted in the Derby canal act, of 33 Geo. III.

34. BRIDGEWATER'S CANAL. Acts 32 and 33 Geo. II. 2d, 6th, (Trent and Merſey act,) and 35th Geo. III. The general direction of the principal line of this canal is nearly N. E. (and not a great way from its eaſtern end, a main branch goes off in a N. W. direction nearly); the length is 40 miles, in the counties of Cheſter and Lancaſter. The great objects which induced the late excellent and patriotic duke of Bridgewater to undertake and to expend a princely fortune on the completion of this canal were, the ſupply of the town of Mancheſter with coals from his eſtates near Worſley; the cheaper and more expeditious conveyance of goods, between Mancheſter and Liverpool, than the Merſey and Irwell river navigation then furniſhed;

ed; and between both of theſe places and the interior and moſt remote parts of the country, by means of the Trent and Merſey (which it joins at Preſton Brook), and its connecting canals. Other and more direct communications have ſince been made between it and the interior and eaſtern parts of the kingdom, by means of the Rochdale canal and thoſe connecting therewith. Under the town of Mancheſter are arched branches of the canal of conſiderable length, from one of which coals are hoiſted up by a coal-gin, through a ſhaft out of the boats below, into a large coal-yard or ſtore-houſe in the main ſtreet, at which place the duke and his ſucceſſors are by the firſt act bound to ſupply the inhabitants of Mancheſter at all times with coals at only 4 *d.* per cwt. of 140 lb.; a circumſtance which muſt have had a great effect on the growing population of this immenſe town within the laſt 40 years. At Worſley is a ſhort cut to Worſley mills, and another to the entrance baſon of the famous underground works or tunnels, of 18 miles or more in length in different branches and levels, for the navigation of coal-boats; ſome of which are as much as 60 yards below the canal, and others 35½ yards above the canal; theſe laſt, to which the boats aſcend by means of an inclined-plane, extend to the veins of coal that are working at a great depth under Walkden Moor. Moſt of theſe tunnels are hewn out of the ſolid rock; from the lower one, the coals in boxes are hoiſted up out of the boats, as they are in Mancheſter town, and the lower works are prevented from filling with water, by large pumps worked by an hydraulic machine, and the water is thereby always kept at the proper height for navigation on the lower canal. Near Worſley, a branch of about 1½ mile in length, proceeds on to Chat-Moſs and there ends. The width of the canal at top is 52 feet on the average, and depth 5 feet. Beſides the tunnels under Mancheſter and at Worſley mines, there is a ſhort one at Groppenhall. On this canal are three principal aqueduct bridges over the Irwell at Barton, where it is navigable, and over the Merſey and Bollin rivers, beſides ſeveral ſmaller ones, and many road-aqueducts. There are alſo ſeveral large embankments. The illuſtrious duke of Bridgewater, juſtly ſtyled the father of Britiſh Inland Navigation, died greatly lamented in March 1803, and left this immenſe concern, (which coſt at firſt 220,000 *l.* it was ſaid, and probably in the whole twice that ſum, as the tunnelling at Worſley alone has been eſtimated at 168,960 *l.*) to earl Gower, the preſent proprietor, whoſe ſecond ſon is to inherit it; the net profits are ſaid now to be from 50 to 80,000 *l.* annually. Irrigation, or watering of meadows, is practiſed in a very judicious and profitable manner, by water let out of this canal at Worſley and other places. The price of land-carriage for goods

goods between Manchester and Liverpool was, on the passing of the Duke's third act, 40*s.* per ton, and by the navigation on the Mersey and Irwell 12*s.* per ton, but his Grace limited his price to 6*s.* per ton: yet, such has been the increasing trade of these two places, that it was in 1794 seriously maintained, and made the ground of another proposed navigable communication, by a junction of the Manchester Bolton and Bury, and the Leeds and Liverpool canals, that both the Duke's canal and the river navigation were inadequate to carry the trade between Manchester and Liverpool, and that the most frequent and ruinous delays were experienced by the merchants. In 1802, the project was again revived of a cut from the Leeds and Liverpool canal to the Leigh branch of this canal. About 1772, the Liverpool and Runcorn was proposed as an extension of this canal from Runcorn; in 1799, the Manchester Bolton and Bury, was proposed to be joined directly with this canal, by means of aqueducts over the Irwell and Medlock at Manchester.

35. *Bristol and Gloucester.* In 1797, surveys were making of the line for a proposed canal from the Bath Avon at Bristol to the Severn at Gloucester, with a continuation to the Severn at Worcester.

36. *Bristol and Taunton.* Several years ago, a canal was proposed from the Avon river at Bristol to the town of Taunton, with various cuts.

37. *Bude and Hatherleigh Canal.* In 1793, the earl of Stanhope proposed a line of water-levels and rail-ways, between the sea in Bude Haven, on the Bristol-Channel part of the Cornish coast, and the neighbourhood of Hatherleigh in Devonshire. In April 1805, a scheme was on foot; for improving the harbour of Bude and building a pier.

38. *Bude and Launceston*, or the Tamar Canal. This is one of the few instances, in which an act (14th Geo. III.) was obtained, without any part of the scheme having been carried into effect. The principal objects of this proposed canal were the carrying of salt and shelly sand from the coast into the interior of the country as manure (an object since in part accomplished by the Tamar manure, and the Stover canals.) The cost on a reduced scale was estimated at 53,100*l.*

39. Burrowstowness Canal. The act 8th Geo. III. (for the Forth and Clyde canal) established a set of proprietors for this canal; its direction being nearly west for about seven miles in the counties of Linlithgow and Stirling, in Scotland. Its objects are stated to be, the avoiding part of a dangerous and difficult navigation on the Forth, and improving the lands of Kinniel and Beercrofts. The company are authorised to raise 8,000*l.* the shares 50*l.* each.

40. Burry

40. BURRY RIVER. This river, or eſtuary, connecting with the Briſtol Channel, is between the counties of Caermarthen and Glamorgan, in South Wales, at the flats in Llanelly it is joined by the Caermarthenſhire rail-way, and another rail-way has lately been laid from this river to the Penclawdd copper-works: in 1801, the Llandorry and Llanelly canal was propoſed to join at the Spitty in Llanelly; and, in October 1805, a wet dock was propoſed to be made on the eaſt ſide of the Llanelly pier to communicate with the Caermarthenſhire rail-way.

41. CAERMARTHENSHIRE RAIL-WAY. Act 42 Geo. III.—General direction nearly north for 14 or 15 miles in Caermarthenſhire. In November 1804, the embankment near this place, conſiſting of more than 40,000 cubic yards of earth, was completed, with the rail-way upon it. In October 1805, it was propoſed to make a wet-dock for ſhips at the commencement of this line, on the eaſt ſide of Llanelly pier; in 1801, the Llandovery and Llanelly canal was propoſed to paſs through nearly this line of country.

42. CAISTOR CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III. Direction eaſt 9 miles in the county of Lincoln. Its objects ſeem the importation of fuel and other articles, for the ſupply of Caiſtor town, and the export of farming produce. The company were empowered to raiſe 25,000 *l.* ſhares 100 *l.* In 1801, there was a propoſal for extending this canal from Caiſtor, to Hambleton Hill, the expenſe of which was eſtimated at 6,500*l.*

43. CALDER AND HEBBLE NAVIGATION. Act Geo. III.—General direction nearly weſt, about 23 miles in length, in the weſt riding of Yorkſhire. The general objects are the communication between Liverpool, Mancheſter, and Hull, by means of the Rochdale and Huddersfield canals, and Ayre and Calder rivers, the import and export of goods from Halifax, and the export of paving-ſtone (now ſo much uſed in London, called Yorkſhire paving) from the famous quarries at Ealand-Edge and Cromwell-Bottom, and lime from Houghton, Brotherton, and Fairburn: at Cooper's Bridge it is joined by Sir John Ramſden's canal (leading to the Huddersfield canal), and at Dewſbury by the Dewſbury and Birſtal rail-way. There is a rail-way branch of about half a mile to Bradley collieries; it has a cut of about half a mile in length by the ſide of the Hebble river, to Salter-Hebble; and proviſion is made (in 33 Geo. III. for Barnſley) for a cut to Bargh-mill, on a branch of Barnſley canal. From the quarries of Thomas Thornhill, Eſq. at Lillon's Wood, near Ealand, a long and wide inclined plane, of about 45° of elevation, was, about the year 1774, made from the Calder river, and paved with large flat ſtones, on which a ſledge deſcend-

ed loaded with ſtone, and by means of a rope paſſing over a wheel and axle, drew another empty ſledge up the plane; this continued in uſe for ſome years; but this quarry was diſuſed before the year 1783. In 1794, the Mancheſter Bolton and Bury canal was propoſed to be extended to join this at Sowerby-Bridge. In 1802, the Wibſey and Dewſbury rail-way was propoſed to join at Raven's Bridge, and notices were given in 1805, for the Wakefield and Hullet rail-way, intended to join this navigation at Bottom Boat, near Wakefield; a ſide-cut is alſo making near Bridge-houſe, for avoiding the mill-dams, and improving this navigation.

44. CAM RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is about ſouth-weſt, for 14 or 15 miles in the county of Cambridge. Its principal object is the ſupply of the town of Cambridge.

45. CAMEL RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is about ſouth-eaſt for near 8 miles, in the county of Cornwall; and is chiefly uſed in the import of coals and export of agricultural produce.

Canterbury and Nicholas Bay. In 1802 a canal was propoſed, and again in 1804, and ſurveys taken, for a canal on a level, capable of carrying ſea-built veſſels, between the ſea at St. Nicholas Bay, near Margate, to the city of Canterbury, about 10 or 11 miles in a ſouth-weſt direction, there to connect with the Stour river, and with a canal then propoſed, called the Medway and Rother canal.

46. CARDIFF AND MERTHYR-TYDVIL RAIL-WAY. Act about 35 Geo. III.—This line is nearly in a north-weſt direction, for 26¾ miles, in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales. The general object of this rail-way is the export of iron from the great works at Merthyr Tydvil, Dowlais, &c.

47. CARON RIVER. The direction of this river is weſt, in the county of Stirling, in Scotland, and at Caron ſhore there is a cut from the Forth and Clyde canal; and near Caron ſhore are the famous Caron iron-works.

48. CART RIVER. The direction of this navigation is nearly ſouth for about 3 miles in Renfrewſhire, in Scotland; its objects being the ſupply, and the exports and imports of the great manufacturing town of Paiſley, at which place it was propoſed, in 1803, to be joined by the Glaſgow and Saltcoats canal.

49. CHELMER AND BLACKWATER NAVIGATION. Acts 6 and 33 Geo. III.—General direction is nearly weſt for 13½ miles in the county of Eſſex; its general objects are the ſupply of Chelmsford and its neighbourhood with coals, deals, &c.

and

and the export of farm produce. An engineer surveyed this line in 1762, and recommended 13 miles of new canal, and estimated the same at near 16,700*l.* The basin at Collier's reach was opened for ships in February 1796; the company were authorized to raise 60,000*l.* the amount of shares 100*l.* each; in 1802 these were so depreciated, that they were said not to be worth 5*l.* each.

50. *Cheltenham and Tewkshury.* In 1801, notices were given for a proposed canal from the Severn river, through the parishes of Tewkshury, Tredington, Elmstone-Hardwick, Uckington, Swindon, and Cheltenham, a course nearly south-east for about 8 miles, in the county of Gloucester.

51. CHESTER CANAL. Acts 11 and 17 Geo. III.—General direction about south-east for 18 miles, in the county of Chester; its principal objects are the export of farming produce, and the import of coals and lime for Nantwich town, and the surrounding country. In consequence of some expensive and unsuccessful projects the shares became perhaps the most depreciated of any concern in the kingdom, being sold at one time, for one *per cent.* of their original value. In 1793, a junction was proposed near Nantwich, with a branch of the intended Sandbach canal; in 1793, a rival scheme to the Ellesmere, called the Eastern Grand Trunk, was proposed to join at Crows-nest; and in June 1796, the commercial canal was proposed to join at the same place, in order to form, by means of the Ashby-de-la-Zouch canal, and others, a communication for 40 ton boats, between Liverpool, Chester, Hull, London, &c.

52. CHESTERFIELD CANAL. Act 10 Geo. III.—General direction nearly south-west, by a crooked course 46 miles in length, in the counties of Nottingham, York, and Derby; its principal objects are the export of coals from near Chesterfield, and lead from the Derbyshire mines, and the import of lime, corn, timber, &c. At Norwood is a tunnel through Hartshill of 2850 yards in length, being 12 feet high and 9½ wide within-side the arch, and 36 feet below the surface of the hill; at Drake's-hole is another tunnel of 153 yards in length. It appears that the canal cost 160,000*l.* and the shares were at first much depreciated, and sold for a long time below par; in September 1805 the profits amounted to 6*l. per cent.* annually. A junction was intended at Chesterfield with the proposed Chesterfield and Swarkstone canal; and in 1802, an extension of this canal was proposed of 5 or 6 miles in length, nearly south to Ashover.

53. *Chesterfield and Swarkstone.* The late Mr. Brindley, about the year 1771, proposed this canal, being about 25 miles nearly north, through a country very rich in coals.

54. CHICHESTER HAVEN. In September 1805, notices were given for cutting a ſhort canal, to commence with a ſea-lock in deep water in this haven, and proceed to Upper Southgate field, in Chicheſter, there to terminate in a ſpacious baſon or dock.

55. CLELBY RIVER. This river has nearly a north-eaſt courſe, in the county of Pembroke, in South Wales.

56. CLYDE RIVER. Acts 34 Geo. II. and 9 and 11 Geo. III. —This river or frith commences with a moſt noble and capacious eſtuary, in the northern or Iriſh channel, and extends nearly north, to Gonrook, when its direction changes towards the eaſt, and its width diminiſhes gradually to Glaſgow, where the navigation terminates. In 1805 an act was obtained by the earl of Eglinton and others, for building new piers and improving Ardroſſan harbour, and building wet-docks, &c. near Saltcoats, on this river, and in this harbour, as well as at Glaſgow, many improvements have been projected.

57. CODBECK BROOK. Act 7 Geo. III.—The direction of this navigation is nearly north for about ſix miles, in the north riding of Yorkſhire, commencing in the Swale river near Topcliff, and extending to the town of Thirſk, for whoſe accommodation it is intended.

58. COLNE RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is nearly N.W. for about 8 miles, in the county of Eſſex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, and of oyſters from the banks below Wivenhoe.

59. ST. COLUMB CANAL. The general direction of this canal is nearly eaſt for ſeven or eight miles, in the county of Cornwall; its objects are the export of a particular ſpecies of ſtone found about St. Dennis, called China-ſtone, uſed in great quantities in Wedgwood's, and other potteries near the line of the Trent and Merſey canal, and the import of coals, and of a ſea-ſand conſiſting of broken ſhells for manure. This canal was propoſed to proceed acroſs the weſtern branch of the grand ridge to the ſouth coaſt; not one third of which length has, however, been carried into effect.

60. *Commercial Canal.* In 1796, a line was ſurveyed proceeding from the Cheſter canal at Nantwich to the Aſhby de la-Zouch canal near that town. The objects of this propoſed canal were, the forming of a communication for larger boats (40 tons) than the Trent and Merſey is calculated for, except below Burton, and contributing towards the wiſhed for paſſage of large boats between Liverpool, Mancheſter, Cheſter, Hull, London, &c.

61. CONWAY RIVER. This river has nearly a ſouth courſe for 14 or 15 miles, between the counties of Caernarvon and Denbigh

Denbigh in North Wales; its principal object ſeems to be the ſupply of Llanrwſt and Aberconway, which are conſiderable towns. At Llanrwſt, there is a curious ſtone bridge of three arches, built by Inigo Jones, over this river; and in 1802, it was propoſed to conſtruct a ſtupendous caſt iron bridge over it at Aberconway ferry, in order to facilitate the communication with Ireland by way of Holyhead, in the Iſle of Angleſea; another iron bridge being intended at Bangor ferry, on Menai ſtrait.

62. COOMBE-HILL CANAL. Act 32 Geo. III.—The courſe of this canal is nearly S.E. for $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles, in the county of Glouceſter: its general objects are the export of coals from the mines near it, and ſhortening of the length of land carriage to Cheltenham. This canal was conſtructed at the ſole expenſe of three perſons, viz. Thomas Burges, William Miller, and Sarah Mumford.

63. *Cottingham and Hull.* In the year 1802, this line of canal was propoſed, about four or five miles in length, in a N.W. direction, in the eaſt riding of Yorkſhire. The import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, and perhaps of chalk, ſeem to be its principal objects.

64. COVENTRY CANAL. Acts 8, 25, (for Trent and Merſey) and 26 of Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly S.E. for about 22 miles (excluſive of the detached part beyond the Birmingham and Fazely canal, and the branch to Coventry) in Staffordſhire and Warwickſhire. Its general objects are the line of communication between London, Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, &c. the export of coals from the numerous mines near it, and the ſupply of Coventry city. There is a cut of about one mile in length to Griff collieries, belonging to ſir Roger Newdigate; another to ſeveral collieries by different branches near Seeſwood-pool and Bedworth, five or ſix miles in length; there is alſo a cut of half a mile from the line to Bedworth; the branch to Coventry is $4\frac{3}{4}$ miles in length, and there is a rail-way branch to Oldbury coal works. The line of communication was opened by the completion of this canal in June 1790. This company have been authoriſed to raiſe 120,000*l.*, their ſhares being 100*l.* each. Some years after the completion of this and the Oxford canal, the ſhares herein had obtained the great price of 400*l.*, but owing to the rivalry of the Warwick and Napton canal, they were, in 1802, reduced to 350*l.*, and their dividend to 8*l. per cent.* Since the completion of the Grand Junction, this concern has been flouriſhing, and the dividends are now 16*l.* per annum per ſhare.

65. CREE RIVER. The courſe of this river is nearly north, for 9 or 10 miles of a crooked courſe, between the counties

of Wigton and Kirkcudbright in Scotland; its object is the ſupply of the adjoining country, and of Wigton.

66. CRINAN CANAL. Acts 33, 39, and 45 Geo. III.—The courſe of this very wide and deep canal is nearly weſt for about nine miles, in the county of Argyle in Scotland; its ſole object is the ſhortening of the paſſage for ſhips between the Iriſh Sea and the Clyde river (by means of the loch of Fine), by avoiding the voyage round the peninſula of Kintire. The proprietors have been authoriſed to raiſe 180,000*l.*, and they have alſo received 50,000*l.* of the public money, which parliament granted in aid of this great and important work. The ſhares are 50*l.* each. A paſſage may, it is ſaid, be made by means of this canal in three or four days, which frequently took up three weeks.

67. CROMFORD CANAL. Act Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is about N.W. for 18 miles, in the counties of Nottingham and Derby; its general objects are the export of coals, and of lead, iron, lime-ſtone, and other minerals from the mines of Derbyſhire. The width of this canal at top is 26 feet; the boats are 80 feet long, $7\frac{1}{6}$ feet wide, and $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep; when empty they draw 8 or 9 inches of water, and when loaded with 22 tons, they draw about $2\frac{1}{2}$ feet. Near Ripley is a tunnel of 2966 yards in length, which is 9 feet wide within-ſide at the water's ſurface, and 8 feet high from thence to the crown of the arch, which is of brick, except ſome parts where the rock proved hard and ſound enough to ſtand without walling. There are ſeveral ſmaller tunnels upon the line for ſhortening its courſe. Over the Derwent river, near Wigwell, there is a large aqueduct bridge 200 yards long and 30 feet high. Over a ſmall river, which comes into the Derwent near Frithly, is another large aqueduct bridge about 200 yards long and 50 feet high; theſe two aqueducts are ſaid to have coſt about 6000*l.* This canal was completed before the year 1794. The total coſt is ſaid to have exceeded 80,000*l.* In 1797, a cut was propoſed from the ſummit-level to the new collieries in Codnor park. In 1801, notices were given for the intended Belper canal, that was propoſed to join this near to Bull bridge; and in 1802, a cut was propoſed to be made from the Derwent aqueduct on this canal to near Dethick, and thence near the Derwent and Wye rivers to the town of Bakewell.

68. CROUCH RIVER. The courſe of this river is nearly weſt, in the county of Eſſex. The principal objects of this navigation are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, and of oyſters from near Walfleet.

69. CROYDON CANAL. Act 41 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly ſouth for $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles, in the counties

ties of Kent and Surry; it is not greatly elevated; its objects are the ſupply of Croydon with coals, deals, &c. and the country through which it paſſes with manures and other articles, and the conveyance of its produce to the London markets, and the export of fire-ſtone, flint, and fuller's earth. This company are to have a baſon for their boats to lie in at Rotherhithe, on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the Grand Surry entrance baſon, and another by the high road near Croydon town. There are ſeven road bridges and 30 accommodation ſwing-bridges. The company are empowered to raiſe 80,000*l.*, which is not now expected to prove ſufficient; the ſhares are 100*l.* each.

70. *Croydon and Wandſworth.* In September 1800, propoſals were made for a canal from the river Thames at Wandſworth, to Croydon in Surry; but it was given up in favour of the north Surry iron rail-way.

71. CYFARTHFA CANAL. The general direction of this canal, or water level, is nearly N.W. for about 3 miles in the county of Brecknock; it was conſtructed to bring coals and iron-ore from the mines in the mountains, to Cyfarthfa, near Merthyr Tidvil.

72. DARENT RIVER. The courſe of this river (called Dartford creek,) is ſouth for near 3 miles in the county of Kent; it terminates near Dartford, for whoſe ſupply it is principally uſed.

73. DART RIVER. General direction nearly N.W. for about 10 miles in Devonſhire; its principal objects ſeem to be the ſupply of Totneſs with coals, and the country with ſhell-ſand manure, and the export of farming produce.

74. *Dean-Foreſt Rail-way.* In 1802, it was propoſed to conſtruct a rail-way from the river Wye, near Engliſh Bichnor, to the ſummit of the Foreſt of Dean, its object being the carriage of coal and iron. In the preceding year the Severn and Wye rail-way was propoſed to paſs nearly the ſame track.

75. DEAN RIVER. Act 12 Geo. III.—Direction nearly S. for about 2 miles in the county of Nottingham. The works were completed in Jan. 1797. In 1793, the Newark and Bottersford was propoſed to join this at Newark.

76. DEARNE AND DOVE CANAL. Acts 33 and 40 Geo. III. General direction about N.W. for 9¼ miles in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the communication between Sheffield, Wakefield, Halifax, Leeds, Mancheſter, Liverpool, &c. and the export of the coals and iron-ſtone, &c. ſo plentifully found on its courſe. It was completed in 1804; the company were empowered to raiſe 100,000*l.*; the ſhares 100*l.* each. In May 1797, earl Fitzwilliam propoſed, at his own expenſe, to extend the Cobcar Ing branch to his

Elficar collieries, on being allowed water from the Elficar reſervoir.

77. Deben River. The courſe of this river is nearly N.W. for about 10 miles in the county of Suffolk; its objects are the imports of coals, deals, &c. and exports of farm produce.

78. Dee River, (*Aberdeen.*) This river takes its courſe about weſt for 2 miles, between Aberdeenſhire and Mearns county in Scotland.

79. Dee River, (*Cheſter.*) The general courſe of this river is nearly S.E. for about 22 miles in the county of Flint, and ſkirting the county of Cheſter. On the N.W. ſide of Cheſter the Elleſmere canal connects with this navigation and croſſes it; at Cheſter this river is joined by the Cheſter canal.

80. Dee River, (*Kirkcudbright.*) The courſe of this river is nearly N. for about 6 miles in the county of Kirkcudbright in Scotland; and at the town of Kirkcudbright the Glenkens canal connects with the river.

81. Derby Canal. Act 33 Geo. III.—This canal runs nearly N. for about 9 miles in the county of Derby; its objects are the ſupply of the town of Derby, and the export of coals and iron. There is a rail-way branch of $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, to Smithey-houſes near Derby, another to Horſley collieries, and another of $1\frac{3}{4}$ mile to Smalley mills. This canal is 44 feet wide at top, 24 at bottom, and in general 5 feet deep. A little W. of the river Derwent, the canal croſſes a brook in a caſt-iron trough or aqueduct. This canal was finiſhed in 1794; the company were authoriſed to borrow 90,000 *l.* the value of ſhares being 100 *l.* The profits of this concern are not to exceed 8 *per cent.* but after 4000 *l.* is accumulated as a ſtock for contingencies, the tolls are to be reduced.

82. Derwent River, (*Derby.*) The courſe of this river is nearly N.W. for about 9 or 10 miles in the county of Derby; its principal object was the ſupply of Derby, previous to the making of the Derby canal, when this concern was ſold to that company.

83. Derwent River, (*New Malton.*) The general courſe of this river is nearly N. for about 37 miles in the Eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the ſupply of New Malton with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce, chalk, &c.

84. Derwent River, (*Workington.*) The courſe of this river is nearly E. in Cumberland. In the vicinity of Workington, on the banks of this river, are ſeveral rail-ways, which bring down coals from the mines for exportation.

85. Dewsbury and Birstal Rail-way. The general direction of this rail-way is nearly N. for about 3 miles, in the

Weſt

Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire, and its object is to bring down coals to the veſſels in the Calder river; it was completed in October 1805.

86. Don (or *Dun*) River. Act 12 Geo. II. General direction nearly S.W. for near 40 miles in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire. The original objects of this navigation were principally the ſupply of Sheffield, and the export of the iron-wares and iron from Sheffield, Rotherham, &c. ſince which period, the Dearne and Dove canal, which joins at Swinton, and the Stainforth and Keadby, at Fiſhlake and at Hangman Hill, and the cut to the Ayre river near Snaith, have opened new ſources of ſupply, and for the export of coals, ſtones, iron, and manufactured goods of ſeveral kinds, which this rich track of country produces. In September 1803, notices were given for a new act for weirs and ſide-cuts to this river in Mexborough, Spotborough, and other places, and a new courſe for the river, near the junction of Dearne river. And, in February 1803, there was a deſign of extending this navigation to Sheffield by a canal from Tinſley, 4 miles, for which 30,000 *l.* was ſubſcribed.

87. Donnington-wood Canal. The general direction of this canal is about N. or N.E. for 7 miles in Shropſhire; its object is the conveyance of iron-ſtone and lime-ſtone from the mines to the Donnington-wood iron works in Lileſhal pariſh, and lime and coals for the ſupply of the town of Newport. This canal was cut in 1778 at the joint expenſe of the marquis of Stafford and Meſſrs. John and Thomas Gilberts. In June 1797 this was propoſed to be joined at Pave-lane by the Newport and Stone canal.

88. Dorset and Somerset Canal. Acts 36 and 43 Geo. III. General direction nearly S. for about 40 miles in the counties of Wilts, Somerſet, and Dorſet: its principal objects are the ſupply of the manufacturing towns and neighbourhood through which it paſſes, with coals from the mines bordering on Mendip, and the opening of an inland communication between the Briſtol channel, the Severn, the Thames, and the ſouthern coaſt of the iſland. The company were by the firſt act authoriſed to raiſe 225,000 *l.* and a further ſum under the ſecond, we believe, the amount of ſhares being 100 *l.*

89. Douglas River (*Lower Navigation*). Acts 6 Geo. I. and 10 and 23 Geo. III. (for *Leeds and Liverpool.*) The courſe of this navigation is nearly ſouth; for 9 miles in Lancaſhire; its objects are the export of common and cannel coals, and farm produce, and the import of lime-ſtone. The width of the canal is 24 to 30 feet, and depth of water 5 feet.

90. Driffield Canal. Acts 7 and 41 Geo. III; courſe nearly north for about 11 miles in the Eaſt Riding of York-

ſhire; its general objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

91. Droitwich Canal. Act 8 Geo. III. General direction about N.E. for $5\frac{3}{4}$ miles in the county of Worceſter; its objects are the export of ſalt and the import of coals, of which 13,500 tons are annually uſed in the boiling of ſalt, except what the town of Droitwich conſumes. The proprietors were authoriſed to raiſe 33,400 *l.* the amount of ſhares being 100 *l.* By the act for the Worceſter and Birmingham canal (31 Geo. III.), the ſhares are guaranteed to produce 5 *per cent.* annually, and are to be made up by that company in caſe of their falling below that ſum. Owing to the overflowings of the copious ſalt ſprings near Droitwich, this canal preſents the curious ſpectacle of a ſalt-water canal, in the interior of the country, in which no river-fiſh can live.

92. Dromreagh Canal (*Ireland*). Between the years 1768 and 1771, the Iriſh parliament granted 3000 *l.* towards carrying on the works.

93. Drumglass Canal. This canal connects with the Drumglaſs collieries in Ireland, towards the works of which canal and collieries, the Iriſh parliament, between the years 1753 and 1771, granted 117,714 *l.*

94. Dudley (and *Owen*) Canal. Acts 16, 25, 30, 33, and 36 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. by a crooked courſe of 13 miles in Worceſterſhire, a detached part of Shropſhire, and Staffordſhire; the town of Dudley and the buſy and rich country through which this canal paſſes, furniſh an ample tonnage in the export of coals, iron, and lime, while its communication with the Stourbridge canal, by the Black-Delph branch, and the terminating canals, occaſions a very conſiderable carrying trade. The depth of water in this canal is 5 feet; the width of the locks on the Black-Delph branch is 7 feet. To near Lapal, or Laplat, this canal paſſes through a tunnel 3776 yards long, at Gorſty hill it paſſes through another of 623 yards, under a collateral branch of the grand ridge, and at Dudley there is another tunnel of 2926 yards in length on the ſummit-level of the canal; the arch of this laſt tunnel has a height of $13\frac{1}{2}$ feet. The company has been authoriſed to raiſe 229,100 *l.* the amount of ſhares being 100 *l.* each originally.

95. *Durham and Cheſter-le-ſtreet.* In February 1797, Mr. Robert Whitworth made a report in favour of a propoſed canal from the Tyne to Cheſter-le-ſtreet, and thence to Durham; it was eſtimated to coſt 79,000 *l.* and the probable advantage thereon to ſubſcribers was ſtated to be near 20 *per cent.*

96. Eden River. The general direction of this river is nearly S.E. for about 12 or 13 miles in the county of Cumberland; its principal objects ſeem the export of coals, and the

ſupply

ſupply of Carliſle. In 1799 a rail-way, from the earl of Carliſle's coal-works, near Brompton, to this river, was opened; and in 1803 another was intended from lord Lowther's coal-works at Warnel, about 11 miles diſtant from Carliſle.

97. EDINBURGH AND GLASGOW CANAL. This canal, projected about the year 1796, appears to have nearly a weſt direction for about 50 miles in the counties of Edinburgh, Linlithgow, and Lanark in Scotland; its objects are the export of coals and lime from Clydeſdale, through which it paſſes, and the opening of a direct communication between Edinburgh and Glaſgow. This canal was finiſhed in 1802; at Glaſgow it connects with the Monkland, and in 1803 the Glaſgow and Saltcoats was propoſed alſo to join it.

98. ELLESMERE CANAL. Acts 33, two of the 36, 41, 42, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly ſouth for 57 miles, by a crooked courſe through the counties of Cheſter, Flint, and Denbigh, (North Wales) and Salop; its great object is ſaid to be the improvement of the agriculture of the extenſive and fertile tracts, through which it paſſes, for uniting the Merſey, Dee, and Severn rivers, and exporting coals, lime, and ſlate, from the ſkirts of the Welſh hills. The depth of water in this canal is 4½ feet, and the canal in general is calculated for boats of 70 feet long and 7 wide. There is a tunnel near Chirk of 775 yards in length, and another at Weſton-Lullingfield of 487 yards in length. At Pont-Cyſylty, this canal is carried over the river Dee in an immenſe aqueduct trough, compoſed of caſt-iron plates, 20 feet wide, 6 feet deep, and 320 feet long; this is ſupported on 19 pair of conical ſtone pillars at 52 feet aſunder, and the middle ones 125 feet in height. At Chirk is a very large ſtone aqueduct bridge of 10 arches, 200 yards in length and 65 feet high, over the Ceriog river; and over the Allen river there is alſo an aqueduct bridge. The company are authoriſed to raiſe 500,000 *l.*, the amount of ſhares being 100 *l.*, which it ſeems were in 1802, at 20 *l.* below par. While this canal was projecting, a rival ſcheme was ſtarted, called the Eaſtern Grand Trunk from the Severn at Shrewſbury to the Cheſter canal at Crow's neſt, with cuts to Vable-Cruis, to Bonham-Furnace, Holt, and other places.

99. EREWASH CANAL. Act 17 Geo. III. General direction nearly north for 11¾ miles along the ſkirt of the county of Derby, near to Nottinghamſhire; its chief object is the export of coals from the numerous collieries on its banks, and thoſe on the banks of the Nutbrook canal which joins it at Stanton, and the Nottingham canal which joins it near Langley Bridge; the branch of the Derby canal joins it between Sandiacre and

Long

Long Eaton, and the Trent canal near Sawley; there is an iron rail-way branch to Brinſley coal-works.

100. ESKE RIVER, (*Whitby.*) The navigable part of this river is but ſhort, in a S.W. direction in the Eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire: it commences at the German Ocean, and extends to Whitby bridge.

101. EXE RIVER. The courſe of this river is nearly N.W. for about 10 miles in the county of Devon; its principal object ſeems the ſupply of Exeter and Topſham; near Topſham it is to be joined by the Grand Weſtern canal.

102. *Exeter and Crediton.* In the year 1800 it was propoſed to make the rivers Exe and Credy navigable, from Exeter city to the town of Crediton, about ſeven miles.

103. *Exeter and Uphill.* In 1769 Mr. John Brindley ſurveyed the country for a canal from the river Exe at Exeter, by Tiverton, Wellington, Taunton, and Glaſtonbury, to the Britiſh Channel near Uphill; the objects of which have been ſince embraced in the Grand Weſtern canal.

104. FERGUS CANAL. This is an Iriſh inland navigation, in aid of which, public money was from time to time granted, though it is ſaid to have amounted to no more than 85 *l.*

105. FORTH RIVER, (or *Firth.*) This principal river of North Britain has its courſe nearly weſt for about 70 miles between the counties of Fife, Haddington, Edinburgh, Linlithgow, Stirling, Perth, and Clackmannan. An immenſe general trade is carried on upon this river, and for the ſupply of the metropolis of Scotland, aſſiſted by the Edinburgh and Glaſgow canal, that joins it at Leith, the Burrowſtowneſs at that town, the Forth and Clyde, or great canal at Grangemouth, the Caron river near Rothkennar, and the Devon river near Cambus Quay. Leith harbour has undergone great improvements of late years under the acts of the 28, 38, 39, and 45 of Geo. III., by the laſt 25,000 *l.* were granted for the wet-docks and other works which have been carrying on there. Methel harbour on the north ſide of the Forth is alſo under improvement, and by the 45 of Geo. III., 2,000 *l.* were granted towards the building of the pier there. In 1767, it was propoſed to extend a navigation from Sterling bridge to the ſlate and lime quarries in Aberfoil.

106. FORTH AND CLYDE CANAL. Acts 8, 13, and 24 of Geo. III. General direction nearly weſt for 35 miles in the counties of Stirling, Dumbarton, and Lanerk, in Scotland; it croſſes a low part of the grand ridge between the tide-ways of the eaſt and weſt ſeas; its principal object is a communication between thoſe important rivers, the Forth and the Clyde, and

between

between the northern metropolis, and the great manufacturing towns of Glaſgow, Paiſley, &c.; near to Grangemouth the Burrowſtowneſs canal joins it. The width of the canal is 56 feet at top, and 27 at bottom, and the depth of water 8 feet. This canal is croſſed in 33 places by draw-bridges, has 33 culverts or arches under it, and 10 large aqueduct bridges; that over the Kelvin is 400 feet in length, and 70 feet high above the ſurface of the river, and there is a large aqueduct which croſſes the turnpike road from Glaſgow to Stirling at Kirkintulloch. This canal was opened with great ſolemnity, the 28th of July 1790. The proprietors were authoriſed in their firſt act to raiſe 200,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* ſhares; after which, 50,000 *l.* of the public money was granted to aid the work; in 1783, 212,000 *l.* had been expended, and no dividend or intereſt had been paid on the ſhares.

107. Foss-dyke Canal. The general direction of this navigation is nearly S.E. for 11 miles in the counties of Lincoln and Nottingham; its object is a communication between the rivers Trent and Witham, for ſupplying coals and exporting farm produce.

108. Foss Navigation. Acts 33 and 41 Geo. III. Direction nearly N. by a crooked courſe of about 13 miles through the North Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the ſupply of the city of York, the import of coals for the uſe of the adjacent country, and to effect a better drainage of the ſame. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 45,400 *l.* by ſhares of 100 *l.* each. Some years ago a pleaſure-boat, made wholly of ſheet iron, was tried on this navigation, 12 feet long, and capable of carrying 15 perſons, and yet ſo light that two men could carry it.

109. Glamorganshire Canal. Acts 30 and 36 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for 25 miles in the county of Glamorgan in South Wales. Its objects are the export of the produce of the immenſe iron, coal, and lime works in the neighbourhood of Merthyr Tidvil, &c. and the ſupply of the rapidly increaſing population thereof; at Eglwyſila the Aberdare canal joins, and the Cardiff and Merthyr rail way runs by its ſide, and joins it at thoſe two places. There is a large aqueduct bridge over the Tav near Gallygare. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 100,000 *l.* and to the powers for raiſing the laſt 10,000 *l.* this ſingular condition was annexed, viz. that the whole concern ſhould be completed within two years, after which no further money ſhould be applied except for repairs. At Merthyr there is a famous water-wheel, made of caſt-iron, 50 feet diameter, at Mr. Crawſhaw's works; the water being conveyed thereto for a great diſtance in an iron aqueduct.

110. *Glaſgow and Saltcoats.* Surveys have been taken for a canal between the Clyde river at Ardroſſan, near Saltcoats, and the ſame river at Glaſgow. This canal would connect with the Forth and Clyde, the Monkland, and the Edinburgh and Glaſgow; the line is through a country rich in coals and limeſtone.

111. GLENKENNS CANAL. Act 42 Geo. III. Direction firſt N.E. and then N.W. for about 27 miles in Glenkenns, in the county of Kirkcudbright in Scotland; the object of it is the export of the coals, iron-ſtone, lime, and other minerals with which the country abounds. The company is authoriſed to raiſe 45,000 *l.* by ſhares of 100 *l.* each, but the works are not to commence until 20,000 *l.* are ſubſcribed, and that muſt be within five years, or the powers of the act are to ceaſe.

112. GLOUCESTER AND BERKLEY CANAL. Acts 33, 37, and 45 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for 18¼ miles in the county of Glouceſter; its object is to ſhorten the navigation for ſhips by a ſerpentine courſe of 28 miles on the Severn river, between Berkley and Glouceſter; near Wheatenhurſt it croſſes and unites with the Stroudwater canal. This canal is 70 feet wide, and 15 or 18 feet deep in water, and the locks, &c. thereon, are capacious enough to admit ſhips of 300 tons burthen to paſs. The company are authoriſed to raiſe 200,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* ſhares.

113. *Glouceſterſhire Rail-way.* In the year 1801 it was propoſed to conſtruct a rail-way from the Avon river at Bitton below Bath to Sodbury coal-works in Glouceſterſhire, with branches to Pucklechurch, Haul-lane, Coal-pit-heath in Weſterleigh, Smith's tynings, and other collieries, in order to bring their produce to Bath and Briſtol, and for the conſumption of the interior of the country, by means of the Kennet and Avon canal.

114. GRAND CANAL, (*Ireland.*) This canal was commenced ſoon after the year 1753; its general direction is nearly weſt, for 61½ miles through Dublin, Kildare, and King's Counties, in Ireland; it paſſes a low part of the grand ridge of Ireland, on the Bog of Allen. Its objects are the ſupply of Dublin with coal, &c., the varied produce of the banks of the Shannon, and opening an inland communication through the country. This canal is ſaid to be 5 feet deep, the locks 80 feet long and 16 wide, in the clear, and built of hewn ſtone. In 1770 this canal had proceeded from Dublin into the Bog of Allen, when, owing to miſmanagement, it ſtood ſtill for ſeveral years, and it was not until the beginning of 1804 that the whole line was finiſhed and opened. The public money granted by parliament to aid this work between 1753 and 1771 amounted to

78,231 *l.*

78,231 *l.* It has been propoſed to reduce the tolls or tonnage ſince the opening of this canal. In 1805 it was propoſed to continue a branch from this canal, near Athy, for 9 miles, to the foot of the Doonane Hills, in Queen's county, and thence to tunnel two miles into the hill, to drain its rich veins of coal, and bring out their produce.

115. GRAND JUNCTION CANAL. Acts 33, 34, three of the 35, 36, 38, 41, 43, and two of the 45 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly north-weſt for 90¼ miles, in the counties of Middleſex, Hertford, Buckingham, Bedford (a very ſmall diſtance), and Northampton. Its principal objects are, a communication between the metropolis and the various canals of the midland counties, the ſupply of coals, deals, ſlate, &c. to the ſeveral towns on the line and branches, and the export of the agricultural products, lime, flints, &c. of the country through which it paſſes; at Northampton it joins the Nen river by a rail-way branch, and the ſame is intended there alſo to join the Leiceſterſhire and Northamptonſhire Union canal. The commencement of this canal is in the river Thames, near the extremity of the tide-way at Brentford creek, and its termination in the Oxford canal at Braunſton. From Bull bridge a branch, 13½ miles in length, goes to Paddington, near London, to the town of Rickmanſworth; there is a cut of about ¼ of a mile, with a lock at its entrance; from Bulbourn head a branch extends for 6¼ miles to Wendover; from Coſgrove a branch of 1¼ mile extends to Stoney or Old Stratford, and thence 9½ miles further to Buckingham; and from Gayton a rail-way branch of 5 miles extends to the river Nen, and the intended termination of the Leiceſterſhire and Northamptonſhire Union canal at Northampton. To Watford a branch of 2 miles, and thence about 8 miles farther to St. Albans, has been ſurveyed and provided for in the acts; another to Ayleſbury of about 6 miles, and another to Daventry of 1½ mile in length, but theſe laſt are not executed. The width of the main line is 36 feet at top, about 24 feet at bottom, and 4½ feet deep in water: the other branches vary. The Northampton rail-way is of iron, and double, that is, has two roads for the carriages going different ways. On the line there are 101 locks, beſides the 9 ſpare ones in Wolverton-valley; on the Buckingham branch there are two locks. At White-friars, juſt above Black-friars-bridge, on the Thames, this company built extenſive warehouſes, over a dock, in which barges lay afloat from one tide to the next; theſe are now let to Mr. Pickford, the great waggon and boat-maſter. At Paddington a ſpacious baſon or ſtraight cut, 400 yards long and 30 wide, has been formed with wharfs at its head, and others are daily extending

extending weſtward along its ſides; behind this, on the north ſide, is a ſpacious yard for a vegetable and a hay and ſtraw market, with large ſheds, under which loads of thoſe articles can ſtand in the dry when it rains; and on the ſouth ſide pens are erected and proviſion made for a large cattle market. The number of wharfs erected on this extenſive line and its branches by individuals is too great for them to be particularized. The number of culverts or ſmall water-courſes under the canal and its branches is very great; and on the towing path are many large and high wooden bridges for croſſing the entrances to branches, docks, or over ſtreams of water. The tunnel between Stoke-Bruern and Bliſworth is 3080 yards in length, 15 feet wide, and 19 feet high, at 60 feet below the top of Bliſworth hill, through which it penetrates. Braunſton tunnel, between that place and Daventry, is 2045 yards in length: another tunnel was at firſt intended near King's-Langley for avoiding Caſhiobury, and other parks in the Colne valley; but an agreement was afterwards arranged with their owners for a paſſage through them, inſtead of tunnelling. Several river and road aqueduct-arches, and aqueduct bridges occur on the line and branches; thoſe over the Brent river, and over Bays-water on the Paddington branch are conſiderable. The works on this canal commenced at both of its extremities, ſoon after the paſſing of the firſt act; and the tunnel at Braunſton being completed, the navigation was opened, in July 1796, as far ſouthward from the Oxford canal, as the great embankment at Weedon Beck; in June 1797, the ſame was extended to the next great embankment at Bugbrook; and about November, in the ſame year, to the north end of the intended tunnel at Bliſworth. Beginning at the ſouthern end in the Thames, the navigation to Two-waters was completed in June 1798, and in June 1801 the branch therefrom to Paddington was opened; in the year 1799, the canal was completed to Bulbourne, and the branch therefrom to Wendover; in June 1800, it was extended to Fenny-Stratford; and about October 1800 to the ſouth end of the intended tunnel at Bliſworth; at the ſame time a double iron rail-way of near $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length (ſince removed) was laid acroſs Bliſworth Hill, to connect the two parts of the canal, and form the much wiſhed for grand junction; in May 1801, the branch to Buckingham was opened; it was not until March 1805 that the Bliſworth tunnel was completed, and the navigation of the whole line opened; and, laſtly, in Auguſt 1805, the immenſe Wolverton embankment was opened for improving the ſame, and avoiding 8 locks, but which locks ſtill remain by its ſide, as a reſerve, in caſe of accident, to this immenſe mound of earth, or the three large arches under it.

This

This company were authoriſed by their firſt nine acts to raiſe 1,528,000 *l.* to which their ſubſequent acts made a conſiderable addition. The ſhares are 100 *l.* each; they have at ſome periods ſold as high as 210 *l.* and at others have been down at 65 *l.* Shares in this concern are allowed to be ſplit in ſuch ſmall portions among different holders as $\frac{1}{8}$th or 12$\frac{1}{2}$ *l.* each. Inland coals from the rich and inexhauſtible mines with which this and other canals form direct communications, were forbid under ſevere penalties (although two legiſlative attempts to enforce the ſame proved inefficient) to be brought nearer to London than the N.W. end of Grove park in Hertfordſhire, until a late act, by which 50,000 tons of ſuch coals are allowed to be brought to Paddington in the current year, on paying a duty equivalent to that paid in the Thames on ſea-brought coals. The market at Paddington, after an ineffectual oppoſition from the city of London, was opened in May 1802, for the ſale of fat cattle, hay, ſtraw, corn, vegetables, &c. By the act 42 Geo. III., this company was authoriſed to lay pipes in certain ſtreets in Paddington, Mary-le-bone, &c. for ſupplying the inhabitants with water; but at that time, certain millers, whoſe dams the line had been made to paſs through, were not conſulted. In June 1801, packet-boats were eſtabliſhed, that continue to paſs regularly at ſtated hours during great part of the year, for the conveyance of paſſengers and parcels between London and Uxbridge; and for ſome time after the opening of the Buckingham branch, a boat went regularly between Paddington and that town; but the number of paſſengers and parcels was found inadequate to ſupport the expenſe. Trading boats are not allowed to paſs along this canal except in the day time, unleſs ſuch as have a ſpecial licence from the company for ſuch purpoſe. Mr. Pickford has a great number of boats, which proceed as regularly day and night upon this canal, and the other canals north of it, as the mail coaches do on the roads, although with leſs expedition. A common trading boat has been known to arrive at Paddington in 63 hours from Coventry. In December 1799, the experiment was firſt tried, of bringing fat oxen to London in boats by means of this canal. The act of the 33d of the King provided certain rates, which are to be paid to the Oxford company for goods paſſing thereon to or from this canal, and this company is bound, ſince the beginning of 1804, to make up the ſame to the amount of 10,000 *l.* per annum. The company is alſo bound to pay annually to the city of London the ſum of 600 *l.* for the liberty of making a junction with the Thames; and all goods paſſing into or out of the ſame on this canal are to pay $\frac{1}{2}$*d.* per ton, to be applied towards improving the middle navigation of the Thames river.

Many

Many plans have been propoſed and ſurveys taken, for branches from this canal, ſome of which ſeem feaſible, but others too vaſt for execution.

116. GRAND SURRY CANAL. Act 41 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 12 miles by a crooked courſe in the county of Surry, and through a ſmall part of Kent; its objects are the ſupply of the neighbourhood through which it paſſes with coals, deals, manures, &c. the bringing of vegetables, and other articles for the ſupply of London: forming a communication between three points of the Thames river, and with the Croydon canal, which it joins near Deptford. There are to be a cut of near $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile to Horſemonger lane; another of $\frac{1}{2}$ a mile to Peckham; another of one mile to But-lane, Deptford; another of $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile to his majeſty's victualling office and the dock-yard at Deptford, and another of $\frac{1}{8}$ of a mile into Greenland-dock, by which it will again communicate with the Thames river. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 60,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* ſhares; and they pay a rent of 60 *l.* *per annum* to the city of London for communicating with the Thames river. Collateral cuts to the extent of 1500 yards may be made by conſent of the land owners. They are alſo to have a dock or baſon for their boats by the ſide of this canal near the Thames at Rotherhithe; which, with the entrance lock and baſon, are on a ſcale calculated for ſmall ſhips.

117. GRAND WESTERN CANAL. Act 36 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for about 35 miles in the counties of Devon and Somerſet; its objects are a connection between the ſouthern coaſt and the Briſtol channel, the ſupply of the country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

118. GRANTHAM CANAL. Acts 33 and 39 Geo. III. General direction nearly eaſt by a crooked courſe of $33\frac{1}{4}$ miles in the counties of Nottingham, Leiceſter, and Lincoln: its objects are the ſupply of Grantham and the neighbourhood through its courſe with coals, lime, deals, &c. and the export of farming products. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 124,000 *l.*, the old ſhares being 100 *l.* each, and the new ſhares (200 in number) 120 *l.* each. The profits to the proprietors are limited to a dividend of 8 *per cent.* and after 3,000 *l.* are collected and depoſited as a fund, the tolls are to be lowered, as much as circumſtances will admit.

119. GRISLEY'S CANAL. Act 15 Geo. III. Direction about N.W. in the county of Stafford: its objects are the ſupply of the town of Newcaſtle under-line with coals from Apdale collieries, and the export of coals from the mines to the weſt of it, by means of the Newcaſtle under-line Junction canal, which now joins it at each of its ends. This canal was conſtructed

conſtructed at the ſole expenſe of Sir Nigel Griſley, Bart. In 1796, the Commercial canal was propoſed to connect with this canal at each end, as the Newcaſtle-under-line Junction afterwards did in 1798.

120. GRIMBSY CANAL. Act 36 Geo. III.—This canal has a S. W. direction for 1½ mile in Lincolnſhire: it is one of the largeſt cuts in England, and calculated to admit ſhips of 700 to 1000 tons burthen. The coſt is ſaid to have been 14,000 *l.* beſides the piling for the foundation; the depth of water is 20 feet.

121. HAMOAZE RIVER. This river, or rather eſtuary, has nearly a north courſe for about nine miles, between the counties of Cornwall and Devon on their ſouthern coaſt: it is frequented by the largeſt ſhips of the royal navy.

122. HARTLEPOOL CANAL. This is only a very ſhort cut of 300 yards in length, on the coaſt of Durham, from the ſea into Hartlepool harbour, effected in 1764, at the expenſe of Sir John H. Duval, through a ſolid rock, to the great depth of 19 feet.

123. HASLINGDEN CANAL. Act 33 of Geo. III. General direction nearly north for 13 miles in the county of Lancaſter; its objects are the export of the rich ſtores of coal, limeſtone, &c. on its courſe, and a communication between Mancheſter and the Leeds and Liverpool canal. The company are authoriſed to raiſe 87,600 *l.*; the amount of a ſhare is 100 *l.*

124. *Headon and Paul Canal.* It is in contemplation to form a canal from the Humber river at Paul to the town of Headon in Holderneſs, about three miles in the eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire: its objects are the ſupply of Headon with coals and other articles, and the export of agricultural products.

125. HEREFORD AND GLOUCESTER CANAL. Act 31 and 33 Geo. III. General direction nearly N. W. for 35½ miles in the counties of Glouceſter and Hereford; its object is the export of coals from the neighbourhood of Newent, and of the cyder and agricultural products of the country. On its line are three conſiderable tunnels, that at Oxenhall is 2192 yards in length; at Cannon-Frome is one of 1320 yards; and near Hereford, another of 440 yards in length. In July 1796, this canal was finiſhed, from the Severn to Newent, and in March 1798, the Oxenhall tunnel was finiſhed, and the navigation extended to Ledbury, and coals were in conſequence reduced in price at that town from 24*s.* to 13*s.* 6*d.* per ton! The company were authoriſed to raiſe 55,000 *l.*

126. *Hereford and Lydbrook.* In 1802, it was propoſed to conſtruct a rail-way from the Wye river near the bridge in Hereford to join the ſame river again oppoſite to Lydbrook.

127. HEYL RIVER, (or *Hale*). The courſe of this river or rather eſtuary is nearly ſouth for two miles in the county of Cornwall, on its north-eaſtern coaſt.

128. HORNCASTLE NAVIGATION. Acts 32 and 40 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for about 11 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the ſupply of Horncaſtle and its neighbourhood with coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural products. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 45,000 *l.* the amount of each ſhare being 50 *l.* The dividends are not to exceed 8 per cent. but after 1000 *l.* is accumulated as a fund for contingencies, the tolls are to be lowered, to keep the profits within that limit. In September 1802, this navigation, and the baſon at Horncaſtle, were completed and opened.

129. HUDDERSFIELD CANAL. Acts 33 and 40 Geo. III. General direction ſouth-weſt for 19½ miles in Yorkſhire and Lancaſhire; it croſſes the Grand-Ridge, at a great elevation, by one of the longeſt tunnels in this kingdom, in a rocky mountain; its objects are the carrying of coals that are found towards both its extremities, the ſupply of part of the country with lime, the conveyance of farming produce to the great towns, and the forming of a more direct communication between Hull and Mancheſter and Liverpool. The tunnel through the Stannage Hills near Marſden is three miles in length, near to which, on the ſummit-level, the company are authoriſed to make reſervoirs to contain 20,000 lock-falls of water, (each 180 cubic yards,) and may make others if theſe prove inſufficient. About the year 1798, that part of the line between Huddersfield and Marſden was completed and opened; in the ſame year the head of a large reſervoir near Marſden-broke, and the torrent of water let down thereby did conſiderable damage to the country below it. The company are authoriſed to raiſe 274,000*l.* the amount of ſhares being 100 *l.* Theſe became greatly depreciated in value, about the year 1800, owing principally, it is ſuppoſed, to many of the original ſubſcribers not being able to anſwer the calls for money, by which the works were retarded, and the canal remained in an unproductive ſtate; the Tunnel under the Stannage Hill is now proceeding.

130. HULL RIVER. The courſe of this river is nearly north for about 12 miles in the Eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the ſupply of Beverley and the adjacent country with coals, deals, &c. and the ſupply of Beverley and Hull with farm produce.

131. HULL AND LEVEN CANAL. Acts 41 and 45 Geo. III. Courſe nearly eaſt for about three miles in the Eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire: its objects are the ſupply of Leven town, of lime

to

to the country eaſt of it, and the export of the agricultural produce thereof for the ſupply of Hull and Beverley. Mrs. Charlotte Bethel is the ſole proprietor.

132. HUMBER RIVER. Act 23 Henry VIII.—This noble river, or rather eſtuary, has nearly a weſt direction for about 40 miles between the counties of York and Lincoln. The tide flows with great rapidity through its whole length, and the depth of water is ſufficient for ſhips of conſiderable burthen, which trade in vaſt numbers to the port of Hull, and with the numerous eaſtern rivers which connect with it. In 1802 the Cottingham and Hull canal was propoſed, to connect with this river at Hull; in the ſame year, the Keyingham-Level navigation was propoſed to join at Stone-creek. In 1805 the Headon and Paul canal was propoſed to connect with it at Paul.

133. IDLE RIVER. The courſe of this river is nearly weſt for about 10 miles, in Nottinghamſhire.

134. INVERNESS AND FORT-WILLIAM CANAL. Acts 43, 44, and 45 Geo. III.—This grand or Caledonian canal, as it is ſometimes called, has nearly a ſouth-weſt direction for 59 miles, in Inverneſs and Argyle ſhires, in the Highlands of Scotland; it paſſes the grand ridge, through a low part interſected by deep lakes or loches: its object is a connexion between the Eaſt and Weſt Seas, by Linnke Loch and Murray Firth, for large ſhips drawing near 20 feet of water, and for avoiding the northern voyage by the Orkneys, or through Pentland Firth. It has in all 23 locks, beſides the ſea or entrance locks. This canal is 110 feet wide at top, 50 at bottom, and 20 feet deep; the locks are 152 feet long and 38 feet wide. Twenty-two miles of this navigation are through a ſurpriſing freſh-water lake, called Loch Neſs, of $\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in breadth, the middle part being 129 fathoms in depth! and its bottom muddy; this loch and the next never freeze, and it is ſaid that their waters do not corrode iron. Loch Lochy is another large lake, $10\frac{1}{2}$ miles in length, and from $\frac{3}{4}$ to $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile in width, and its greateſt depth 76 fathoms, through which this navigation paſſes: it has a ſecure little harbour, 200 fathoms long and 150 fathoms wide, at its eaſtern end. Another ſmaller lake is found on this line, called Loch Oich, $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, from $\frac{1}{16}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$ of a mile wide, and 26 fathoms in depth in the deepeſt part, its bottom being a ſoft mud. Loch Doughfour, the remaining one of the four, is $1\frac{1}{4}$ mile long, about $\frac{1}{4}$ of a mile wide in its wideſt part, and about 40 feet deep. The number of ſwing bridges is 23; there are 5 culverts with 1 to 4 arches each, and an aqueduct bridge of 4 ten-feet arches at Ley Bridge: the deep-cutting near Laggan is to be $45\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep on the ſummit, and is eſtimated to coſt 11,262 *l.* New courſes are required to be

cut for the river Spean, and at Fort Auguſtus for the river Neſs; the ſteep hills adjoining, rendering it neceſſary for the canal to occupy the old bed of the river for ſome diſtance in theſe places. A large weir is to be made at the eaſt end of Loch Doughfour, to hold up its waters to the level of Loch Neſs, and ſeveral ſmaller weirs are to be made. Loch Oich is to be deepened 1540 yards in length, at the expenſe of 11,550 *l.* This canal is moſt amply ſupplied with water on the ſummit, not only for the lockage, but for the working of mills out of the different pounds, which will doubtleſs hereafter prove of immenſe advantage to the country. The eſtimates carry the expenſe of this undertaking to 474,531 *l.* excluſive of 23,000 *l.* for land and mooring-chains. By the firſt act 20,000 *l.* by the next 75,000 *l.* and by the laſt 50,000 *l.* of the public money were granted, for carrying on this great work.

135. ITCHING RIVER. Acts 16 and 17 of Cha. II. and 7 and 35 of Geo. III.—The general direction of this navigation is nearly north, for about 14 miles, in Hampſhire; its objects are the ſupply of Wincheſter with coals, deals, &c. and of Southampton with flour and other agricultural products, and the trade between theſe towns. At Northam it is joined by the Southampton and Saliſbury canal. This navigation is the ſole property of James D'Arcy, Eſq.; and he and his predeceſſors were the ſole carriers, or nearly ſo, thereon, until 1795, when commiſſioners were named, in the act, for fixing rates of tonnage, on payment of which it is in future to be a free navigation.

136. IVEL RIVER. Act 30 Geo. II. Direction nearly ſouth, for about 11 miles, in the county of Bedford; its objects are the ſupply of the towns of Biggleſwade, Shefford, and the adjoining country, with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farm produce.

137. IVELCHESTER AND LANGPORT CANAL. Act 35 Geo. III. Direction nearly eaſt for about 7 miles in the county of Somerſet: its objects are the import of coals and export of farming products. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 8,000 *l.* the amount of ſhares being 50 *l.* each.

138. KENNET RIVER. The courſe of this river is nearly eaſt for about 20 miles in the county of Berks; its objects are the ſupply of Newbury, and the export of farming products.

139. KENNET AND AVON CANAL. Acts 34, 36, 38, 41, and 45 Geo. III. General direction nearly eaſt for 55½ miles in the counties of Somerſet, Wilts, and Berks; its objects are a communication between Briſtol, Bath, and London, and the ſupply of the country weſt of Hungerford with coals from the mines connected with the Somerſetſhire Coal canal, which joins at Monkton Combe; at Widford it connects with the Dorſet and Somerſet

Somerſet canal, and at Semington with the Wilts and Berks canal. Progreſs was firſt made in completing parts of this canal at its eaſtern end, and in October 1798, it was opened from Reading to Hungerford; in July 1799 the ſame was opened to Great Bedwin, near the beginning of the ſummit: in May 1801, the other end of the line was opened from Bath to Devizes. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 810,000 *l.* beſides a farther ſum by the laſt act; the original ſhares were 120 *l.* each, but a great number of defaulters appeared among the ſubſcribers, and thoſe remaining being called on for 17 *l.* 4 *s.* 7½ *d.* on each, made the amount of theſe old ſhares 137 *l.* 4 *s.* 7½ *d.* each, before the act of 41 Geo. III. reſtrained any further calls on their ſhares, and created a new ſet of ſhares of the amount of 60 *l.* each. The ſhares of ſeveral diſcontented proprietors were directed to be purchaſed. This canal paſſes through Sydney-gardens near Bath, which are laid out and appropriated to pleaſurable parties like our Vauxhall gardens. A canal paſſing through nearly this tract of country was propoſed in 1754. The new ſhares in 1802 bore a premium, notwithſtanding no intereſt is to be received on them until the line is completed, which was required by the firſt act to be done in 1806. Some years ago it was propoſed to extend a branch of the Baſingſtoke canal to join this at Hampſtead: in 1796 there was an intention of extending this canal by the ſide of the Avon to Briſtol.

140. KETLEY CANAL. The general direction of this canal, or water-level, is about E.; originally it was about 1½ mile in length, in the county of Salop; its objects are the conveyance of coals, iron-ore, and lime-ſtone, the export of heavy iron goods, &c. it was contrived by Mr. William Reynolds, and cut in 1788 at the ſole expenſe of Meſſrs. William Reynolds and Co. and in the year 1793, 1 mile and 188 yards of this level at its eaſt end were ſold to the Shrewſbury company, and made part of their canal.

141. *Keyingham-Level.* In the year 1802, a ſurvey was made for a navigation, and drainage-cuts, from the Humber river at Stone-creek, to Roofs-bridge and Owſtwick-carr gate, in the Eaſt-Riding of Yorkſhire, the eſtimated expenſe being 1500 *l.* the canal was propoſed to paſs near the town of Keyingham, its objects being the import of coals, &c. and the export of agricultural articles.

142. KIDWELLY CANAL. The length of this canal is about 3½ miles, in Caermarthenſhire, in South Wales, it is the private property of Mr. Keymer; its object is the export of lime and coals.

143. LAGAN NAVIGATION (*Ireland*). This navigation is

eſtabliſhed with the view of facilitating the working of the colfieries with which it connects; public money was advanced to complete it between 1753 and 1770, amounting to 40,304*l.*

144. LANCASTER CANAL. Acts 32, 33, 36 and 40 Geo. III. General direction nearly S. for 75¾ miles in the counties of Weſtmoreland and Lancaſter; its objects are the interchange of the lime-ſtone of the northern parts, for the coals and cannel of the ſouthern parts of the line, the ſupply of Lancaſter and Preſton, &c. it is to connect with the ſea at Glaſſon Dock by a cut of 4 miles from Galgate on the line of the canal; it croſſes the Loyne and Ribble rivers, but without connecting with them, and it likewiſe paſſes under the Leeds and Liverpool canal. This canal is 7 feet deep, the boats are 56 feet long and 14 feet wide, carrying 60 tons. There are two tunnels, one at Hincaſter near Leven's Park of about 800 yards long, and another through the Whittle Hills near Chorley. At Lancaſter there is a moſt ſurpriſing aqueduct bridge 51 feet high, over the Loyne river, conſiſting of 5 arches of 70 feet ſpan each. There are other aqueducts over the Ribble at Preſton, the Wyre at Garſtang, the Beeloo near Bethorn, &c. and it is paſſed on an aqueduct 60 feet high near Bark-mill, not far from Wigan, by the Leeds and Liverpool canal. The company is authoriſed to raiſe 414,000*l.* in 100*l.* ſhares, and 200,000*l.* more in ſhares of 30*l.* each. In July 1796, the laſt arch of the Lancaſter aqueduct was completed: in September 1805, it was ſtated that the ſhares divided 1*l.* per cent. From Bolton to Lancaſter and thence to Preſton it was opened in November 1797, and in a few years after the whole of the long level was completed. In June 1803, the Whittle tunnel was completed, and 1½ mile of the rail-way, ſo that coals paſſed from Weſt Houghton to Bramber-bridge, and in 1805, the remainder of the rail-way was opened for conveying coals to Preſton, Lancaſter, &c. At Heſt this canal paſſes along cloſe to the ſea beach.

145. LARK RIVER. This river (ſometimes called the Mildenhall) has its courſe nearly S. E. for about 22 miles in the county of Suffolk, after ſkirting the bounds of Cambridge for ſome miles. It is generally very ſhort of water in the autumn. In 1789, this river was propoſed to be croſſed by the Biſhop-ſtortford and Wilton intended canal; and in 1802 it was propoſed to be joined at Bury St. Edmund's by the Stowmarket and Bury rail-way.

146. LEA RIVER. Acts 12 Geo. II. and 7, 19, and 45 Geo. III. General direction almoſt north for about 28 miles between the counties of Middleſex and Eſſex and in Hertfordſhire; its objects are the ſupply of Hertford and all the ſurrounding county with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming

ing products, of which malt from Ware forms a conſiderable part. At Bromley near Bow it connects with the Limehouſe canal, and near Hoddeſdon it is joined by the Stort river. In 1772, and again in 1802, this river was propoſed to be joined at Waltham-Abbey by the London and Waltham-Abbey, with another junction therewith at Lee-bridge; and in 1792, it was propoſed to be joined at Hertford by the Leiceſter and London canal. Several years ago the Biggleſwade and Hertford canal was propoſed to join this river at Hertford. Between Hertford and Ware, the New River or aqueduct for the ſupply of London, has its riſe, partly out of the chalk hills, and partly by a feeder out of this river, and purſues its devious courſe for near 40 miles. This great work was begun by Sir Hugh Middleton in 1608; in 1773, Mr. James Sharp ſuggeſted the making of the New River navigable, and continuing it by a level cut to the Thames near Reading. In 1803, Mr. John Rennie was employed by government to ſurvey the lower part of the courſe of the Lea River, and to conſtruct embankments acroſs, for filling this extenſive vale with water in caſe of an invaſion: the gates intended to produce theſe effects, are veſſels that can on the ſhorteſt notice be floated to and ſunk in their proper places, to ſtop the water, as before deſcribed.

147. *Leatherhead and Thames Rail-way.* In 1801, it was propoſed to make a rail-way from a baſon to be made on the banks of the Thames, in Weſt Moulſey (oppoſite Sunbury) to the town of Leatherhead in Surry, through the pariſhes of Walſton, Cobham, Stoke-Dawbernon, Little Bookham, Great Bookham, and Fetcham.

148. LEE RIVER, (*Ireland.*) For improving the navigation of this river, the Iriſh parliament between 1753 and 1770, granted 2,000 *l.*

149. LEEDS AND LIVERPOOL CANAL. Acts 10, 23, 30, and 34 Geo. III. General direction between N. E. and E. by a very crooked courſe of 130 miles in the counties of Lancaſter and York; it croſſes the grand ridge by a tunnel, near Colne, and at Red-Moſs and Aſpule croſſes the Haſlingden and Liverpool branch of the grand ridge. Its objects are a communication between the ports of Liverpool and Hull, the export of the immenſe ſtores of coals, cannel, and lime-ſtone, that are found on parts of its courſe, and the ſupply of the great towns thereon with the agricultural products of the intermediate country. At Brier's-mill it connects with the Douglas navigation (now belonging to this company, by a purchaſe under 23 Geo. III.) near Bark-mill not far from Wigan it croſſes the Lancaſtar canal (but is 60 feet above it on an aqueduct-bridge). At Church it connects with the Haſlingden canal, at Skipton with Thanet's

canal, and at Windhill with the Bradford canal. From this canal there is a cut to Ighton-hill collieries, another to Altham collieries; and proviſion is made for cuts to be made by the earl of Balcarras and Mr. Shuttleworth between their coal-works and the line. The whole lockage is 840½ feet by 91 locks, which are each 70 feet in length, and 15½ feet in width; the breadth of the canal at top is 42 feet, and it is 4¼ feet deep in water. At Leeds there is a fine baſon, and there are ſpacious warehouſes belonging to this company at the north-eaſt corner of Liverpool town, and it was intended in 1801, to conſtruct a new baſon from the North Graving-Dock on this canal, to the top of Plumbe-ſtreet. At Foulridge there is a tunnel of 1030 yards in length, and 23 yards below the higheſt point of the hill; the ſoil of which proved ſo very looſe, that only 700 yards could be worked under-ground, the remainder was obliged to be opened from above, from 10 to 20 yards deep, and 20 to 30 yards wide at the top, although it was ſupported with immenſe labour and expenſe by timbers to prevent its falling, until the tunnel arch was formed, which is 18 feet high and 17 feet wide within-ſide; it is arched with ſtone. At Furnloy near Burnley, there is another tunnel. At Cottingley below Bingley, and near Gargrave, there are conſiderable aqueduct bridges over the Ayre river, and ſeveral leſſer ones in different places. In 1770, the eaſtern end of the line was completed from Leeds to Holme-bridge, a diſtance of 33½ miles; about the end of 1794 this was extended to near Foulridge. May 1, 1796, the Foulridge tunnel was completed and the line opened to Burnley. In May 1801, the Furnloy tunnel was finiſhed, and the navigation extended to Enfield within 4½ miles of Blackburn; and in July 1801, the Altham branch was opened. The weſtern end of the line was begun as early as the other, and in 1770 the ſame was opened from Liverpool to the Douglas old navigation at Newborough, 128 miles; and on 19th October 1774, the preſent navigation was completed to Wigan. This company was authoriſed to raiſe 600,000 *l.* the amount of ſhares 100 *l.* About 1794, a branch of the Mancheſter Bolton and Bury was propoſed to join this canal at Red-Moſs near Wigan. In September 1802, it was propoſed to make a branch from this canal near Wigan to Bridgewater's canal at Pennington; alſo a branch or rail-way from it to Low-hall collieries.

150. LEICESTER NAVIGATION. Acts 31, 34, (for Aſhby Canal) and 37 Geo. III. General direction about ſouth, following nearly the courſe of the Soar River, for 14 miles in the county of Leiceſter; its objects are the ſupply of Leiceſter with coals, deals, and general merchandize, the export of coals and limeſtone from the mines on its branches, and the farming pro-

ducts of the country. From the baſon at Loughborough, a rail-way branch of 2½ miles, and a riſe of 185 feet extends weſtward to a baſon at Foreſt-lane, at the eaſt end of the Charnwood Foreſt water-level. From the weſt end of the water-level, a rail-way extends ¾ of a mile further to Clouds-hill lime-works, and there connects, or very nearly ſo, with a branch of the Aſhby-de-la-Zouch canal; there is a ſhort rail-way branch of ſix chains to Barrow-hill lime-works. In December 1793, the part of the line between Loughborough and Sielby, near Mount Sorrel, was opened, and in February 1794 the remainder of the ſame to Leiceſter was opened. The company was authoriſed to raiſe 84,000 *l.*

151. *Leiceſter and London Canal.* About the year 1792 printed propoſals and a plan were circulated for a canal from the Leiceſter, intended as a rival to the Grand Junction, and to form the ſhorteſt communication between London, Liverpool, Hull, and Lynn, and the intermediate large trading towns, mines, &c.

152. LEICESTER AND MELTON-MOWBRAY NAVIGATION. Acts 31 and 40 Geo. III. General direction nearly E. following the courſes of the Wreak and Eye rivers, for about 12 miles, in the county of Leiceſter; its objects are the ſupply of Melton Mowbray with coals, deals, &c. and the export of the farming products of the country. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 40,000 *l.*

153. LEICESTERSHIRE AND NORTHAMPTONSHIRE UNION CANAL. Acts 33 and 45 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.E. by a crooked courſe of 43¾ miles in the counties of Leiceſter and Northampton; its objects are the formation of a junction between London, Hull, and Lynn; the ſupply of the country through which it paſſes with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products; it is to connect at Northampton with a rail-way branch of the Grand Junction. There are four tunnels on this line, viz. at Foxton, of 1056 yards in length; at Kelmarſh, of 990 yards in length; at Saddington, of 880 yards in length, and at Oxenden, of 286 yards in length. On Oxenden and Kelmarſh brooks are the aqueducts for the ſupply over the ſummit-level, but flood-waters alone are to be taken. There are a great number of ſmall aqueducts over the ſtreams which it paſſes. In March 1800, the tunnel at Saddington was finiſhed, and the line opened from Leiceſter to Gumley, a diſtance of 17 miles; but ſmall progreſs appears to have been ſince made with the other three tunnels, and the remainder of the line, intended to form the union. By the firſt act the company were authoriſed to raiſe 300,000 *l.* ſhares 100 *l.* each; the laſt act was for varying ſome parts of the line and amending the former one. About the year 1793, the Uppingham canal was

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in contemplation, and its junction with this canal is provided for in the firſt act.

154. LEOMINSTER CANAL. Acts 31 and 36 Geo. III.—General direction nearly W. by a crooked courſe of $45\frac{3}{4}$ miles in the counties of Worceſter, Salop, and Hereford; its objects are the ſupply of Leominſter and the country with coals from the Pinſax mines near its eaſtern end, and the export of iron, lime, and agricultural products. At Pinſax is a tunnel of 3850 yards, and the other at Souſnant is 1250 yards in length. There are conſiderable aqueduct-bridges over the Rea river at Knighton, over the Teme at Woferton, and over the Lugg at Kingſland. In July 1796 the difficult tunnel at Putnal-field in Souſnant was finiſhed, and in November 1796, near 20 miles of canal, from Mamble coal-works to the town of Leominſter were opened, and coals, which before ſold there at 1*s.* 6*d.* per cwt. were at once reduced to 9*d.* per cwt.! On the 1ſt of June 1797, the entrance of the canal from the Severn was opened: ſince which conſiderable progreſs has been made in the works: in May 1805, the Pinſax mining company was propoſed, for opening new coal and iron mines near that place, on the line of the canal, which was expected to facilitate its completion. The Leominſter company have been authoriſed to raiſe 370,000 *l.* About the year 1794, the Welſhpool and Leominſter canal was propoſed to join this at Woferton.

155. LIFFEY RIVER, *(Ireland.)* The direction of this river is nearly weſt, in Dublin county, from the Bay of Dublin to the entrance baſon of the Grand Canal in Dublin city. In 1800 it was propoſed to avoid the bar at the mouth of the Liffey, by cutting a new channel or canal for ſhips from Dunleary to Ringſtead dock; it was alſo propoſed to make Dalkey ſound a ſafe harbour, and to make a cut from thence to the Grand Canal baſon; the bill for this purpoſe was paſſed by the commons, but was rejected by the houſe of lords.

156. LIMEHOUSE CANAL The direction of this canal is about N.E. for $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile in the county of Middleſex; its object is to ſhorten the navigation between the Lea river and the port of London, by avoiding the circuit round the Iſle of Dogs. This canal was cut at the expenſe of the city of London, in an early part of the preſent reign. In 1773 a cut from the intended London and Waltham-Abbey canal was intended to join this near Limehouſe church.

157. LIMERICK CANAL, *(Ireland.)* This canal was cut near 40 years ago from the town of Leitrim to a moraſs within a ſhort diſtance, for the purpoſe of bringing turfs, to ſupply the town of Limerick with fuel.

157. *Liſkeard*

158. *Liſkeard Canal.* In 1777, Mr. Edmund Leach propoſed a canal, or rather a ſyſtem of water-levels and inclined-planes, from the tide-way in the Looe river, at Sand-place in Morval to Bark-mill-bridge in St. Clear. The eſtimate was 17,500*l.*; the objects, the carrying up of lime and ſea-ſand for manure, and exporting corn, &c.

159. *London Canal.* In July 1802, a ſurvey was made for a canal, about in a weſt direction, for near 7 miles, in the county of Middleſex: commencing in the London Docks, (and thereby communicating with the Thames river,) to paſs Weſt's-gardens, the mount in White-chapel road, and Bethnal-green New road, acroſs Hackney road, through Middleſex-place acroſs Kingſland road, near Iron-mongers' alms-houſes, to paſs north of Lady Lumley's alms-houſes at Hoxton, acroſs the city road below the turnpike-gate, acroſs Goſwell-ſtreet, ſouth of Goſwell-place, acroſs St. John's-ſtreet, north of Taylor's brew-houſe, under the field ſouth of the New-river head, over the valley at Bagnigge-wells, acroſs Gray's Inn-lane at the weſt corner of the Welſh Charity-ſchool, acroſs the New road to the eaſt corner of Bedford nurſery, acroſs Tottenham court road between St. James's burying-ground and the New-river reſervoir, paſt the fronts of the Queen's-head and Artichoke public houſe, and acroſs the Edgware road to the baſon of the Grand Junction canal at Paddington, the riſe in this diſtance being about 90 feet. The great number of bridges required, the paſſing of the field near Iſlington full of water-pipes in all directions, belonging to the New-river company, by an arch under the ſame, and a large embankment or aqueduct bridge near Bagnigge-wells, were difficulties in the way of this project, but to which the ſubſcription for ſhares (which almoſt immediately filled to the amount of 400,000*l.*) would have been equal; had not the inability of the Grand Junction company to furniſh the water neceſſary for the lockage, and the oppoſition of ſeveral powerful land owners, on account of its making ſome alterations neceſſary in their building projects, fruſtrated the ſcheme altogether for the preſent. The Weſtern branch of the Grand Junction was in contemplation at the time this canal was intended, and water was propoſed to be obtained thereby from the Thames for this canal, the Colne millers having it unfortunately in their power to prevent any being obtained from that river. After the oppoſing intereſts were found too ſtrong to leave any proſpects of carrying this canal, a faint effort was made to accompliſh a rail-way, through nearly the ſame line, but with no better ſucceſs. In 1773, Mr. Robert Whitworth made a ſurvey for the city of London, and recommended a line of canal from the Lea river at Lee-bridge, to near

near the ſame ſpot which the Grand Junction baſon now occupies at Paddington: it was intended as branches eaſt and weſt of the London and Waltham-Abbey canal.

160. *London Lynn and Norwich.* In 1785, Mr. John Philips endeavoured to call the public attention to a canal between the Ouſe river at the port of Lynn, and the Thames river at Lime-houſe with a branch to the Yare river at Norwich. He ſtated that he could execute this canal, 36 feet wide, and 4½ feet deep, for 200,000*l.*; and that 28,000 oak trees, to be planted on the banks of this canal, will, in 50 years, repay all its expenſes within 60,000*l.* In 1802, an effort was made to revive this or a ſimilar ſcheme, and to be denominated the North London Canal.

161. *London and Waltham-Abbey.* In 1773, an engineer was employed by the city of London to ſurvey the line for a canal between the centre of the quarters in Moorfields, London, to the river Lea at Waltham-Abbey; a diſtance of 14 miles, almoſt in a north direction in the counties of Middleſex and Hertford. The width was to be 60 feet, and depth 4½ feet; the whole expenſe was eſtimated at 98,229*l.* In 1802, this or a ſimilar ſcheme ſeems to have been in contemplation, but to join the Thames near Bell-wharf in Shadwell inſtead of the Lime-houſe cut.

162. Looe River. The general direction of this navigation is nearly N. for about 3¼ miles on the ſouth coaſt of Cornwall; its objects are the carrying up of coals, and ſea-ſand as manure, and the export of agricultural products.

163. Loughborough Navigation. Act 16 Geo. III.—General direction nearly S. for about 9 miles, following the courſe of the Sour river, except in the laſt mile, which is a new cut; at the baſon, 300 yards from its ſouth end, it is joined by the line of the Leiceſter navigation and by the Charnwood-Foreſt rail-way branch belonging thereto. Its objects are as various as the trade of the Trent, and the wants of Leiceſter and other great towns; it forms alſo part of the line of communication which the Leiceſterſhire and Northamptonſhire Union canal is to open.

164. Louth Navigation. The general direction of this navigation is nearly S.W. for 14 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the ſupply of Louth, and the adjacent country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce. The eſtimate of expenſe was 15,600*l.*

165. Loyne River. The general direction of this river (ſometimes called the Lune) is nearly N.E. for about 7 miles in the county of Lancaſter; its object is the foreign trade of Lancaſter, particularly in cabinet-maker's wares, a branch of the

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Lancaſter canal is to connect with it at Glaſſon, where a ſpacious wet-dock is intended. With 9,030 inhabitants; this river commences in the Iriſh ſea at Sunderland point, and terminates at Lancaſter old bridge, ſome diſtance below Mr. Rennie's famous aqueduct bridge over this river. It appears, that in the year 1799, 52 veſſels cleared out of this river for the Weſt Indies with 11,669 tons of goods in more than 99,000 packages, worth 2½ millions ſterling. In October 1799, it was in contemplation to conſtruct a ſpacious dock at Thornbuſh for large ſhips, with a canal from thence of 6 miles in length through Glaſſon-dock, and nearly up to the town of Lancaſter, to be wide and deep enough for the largeſt veſſels that trade to that place.

166. LYNN RIVER. The general direction of this river (ſometimes called the Lenne, the Nar, or the Setchy) is nearly S.E. by a crooked courſe of about 15 miles in the county of Norfolk; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce.

167. *Maidenhead and Iſleworth.* In 1770, engineers were employed by the city of London, to ſurvey the line of a canal from the Thames at Iſleworth, to the ſame river again below Bolter's-lock near Taplow-mill, about 1 mile above Maidenhead-bridge, and at the lower end or termination of the 3d diſtrict of the Thames and Iſis navigation; the length of this line is 19⅜ miles with a riſe of 71⅓ feet. The canal was propoſed to be 50 feet wide and 4 deep, with cuts to the Thames at Windſor, and near Laleham; the eſtimate of expenſe was 47,885 *l.* A bill was brought into parliament, but the oppoſition of the land owners proved fatal to it; although, as appears, that the length of the river-navigation is 37⅜ miles in this diſtance, and greatly obſtructed by ſhallows. In 1791, this ſcheme was revived, and in 1794, engineers were employed to reviſe this line. The tolls at firſt propoſed were ½ *d.* per ton per mile on all articles; out of this revenue, it was propoſed to improve the river navigation between Mortlake and Bolter's-lock: and to raiſe the neceſſary ſums on life annuities, ſo that after a fund was eſtabliſhed for repairs and management, the canal might at length become free for the public uſe. At Bolter's-lock the Reading and Maidenhead canal was propoſed to join this canal, by which the navigation from London weſtward would have been amazingly ſhortened and improved.

168. MANCHESTER ASHTON AND OLDHAM CANAL. Acts 32, 33, 38, 40, and 45 of Geo. III. General direction nearly E. for about 7 miles in the counties of Lancaſter and Cheſhire; its objects are the ſupply of Manchеſter and Stockport with coals, cannel, ſtone, lime, &c. and forming part of the intended direct communication between Liverpool, Manchеſter, and Hull,

Hull, by means of the Huddersfield and other canals; by means of its Duckenfield branch it communicates with the Peak-Foreſt canal. This canal is 33 feet wide at top, 15 feet at bottom, and 5 feet deep in water. This company were authoriſed by the firſt 4 acts to raiſe 170,000 *l.*, and a further ſum by the laſt act; amount of ſhares 100 *l.* The line of this canal was completed between Mancheſter and Aſhton about the end of the year 1796, and in January 1797, the Stockport branch was opened. In 1802, the ſhares in this concern were 20 *l.* below par.

169. MANCHESTER BOLTON AND BURY CANAL. Acts 31 and 41 Geo. III.—General direction N.W. for about 11 miles in the county of Lancaſter; its objects are a communication between the great manufacturing towns of Mancheſter, Bolton, and Bury, and the carriage of coals and other articles for their ſupply, and forming part of the line of communication between Mancheſter and the Leeds and Liverpool canal. This company were authoriſed by their firſt act to raiſe 97,000*l.*, and a further ſum by the late act. About 1794, it was in contemplation to make a branch weſtward from Bolton, to connect with the Leeds and Liverpool canal. In 1796, it was propoſed to extend a branch from the baſon in Salford pariſh to Oldfield-lane in that town; and, in 1799, it was in contemplation to build an aqueduct bridge over the Irwell, and connect this canal with Bridgewater's canal.

170. MARKET-WEIGHTON CANAL. Act 12 Geo. III. General direction nearly N. for about 11 miles in the Eaſt Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the conveyance of coals, deals, &c. to Market-Weighton and the ſurrounding country, the export of farming products, and the better drainage of the fen lands through which it paſſes.

171. *Mawgan Canal.* In 1775, a narrow canal was cut of 6 or 7 miles in length; from Port Mawgan near Trenance on the N.W. coaſt of Cornwall, to within 3 miles of St. Columb Major; it was intended for bringing up coals and ſea-ſand for manure, and for carrying down china-ſtone and clay, but ſeveral of the adventurers being ruined, the ſcheme was abandoned.

172. MEDINA RIVER. The direction of this navigation is ſouth, and nearly ſtraight for $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles, in the Iſle of Wight; its object is the ſupply of Newport and the central parts of the iſland with coals and other articles.

173. MEDWAY RIVER (*lower diſtrict.*) Acts 32 and 42 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 27 miles by a bending courſe in the county of Kent; its objects are the import of coals, deals, and other articles, and the export of Kentiſh-Rag lime-ſtone, fullers-earth, farming produce, &c. Near its northern termination, it connects with the eaſt Swale

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or tide-way paſſage, of about 15 miles in length ſouth of Sheppy iſland, connecting with the Thames near Whitſtable; and, at Nicholſon's ſhip-yard in Strood it is joined by the Thames and Medway canal.

174. MEDWAY RIVER (*upper diſtrict*). The general direction of this part of the river is S.W. for about 12 miles in the county of Kent; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and export of lime-ſtone, fullers-earth, farming-produce, &c.

Medway and Rother. In 1801, a ſurvey was made for a canal from the Rother river to the Stour river at Canterbury, with a branch to the Medway river at Yalden-lees, through the counties of Suſſex and Kent; its objects were the ſupply of the interior country with coals and other articles, the export of timber and farming products, and forming a communication between the ſouth coaſt at Rye-harbour and the Thames river, &c.

175. MENAI STREIGHT. This ſtreight ſeparates Angleſea from North Wales, and has nearly a N.E. direction for about 16 miles, through which the tide flows. In 1801, and 1802, it was in contemplation to build a caſt-iron bridge over this ſtreight at Swelly rocks near Porthacthavy Ferry not far from Bangor.

176. MERSEY AND IRWELL NAVIGATION. Acts 7 Geo. I. and 34 Geo. III. General direction is nearly eaſt by a crooked courſe of 50 miles in the county of Lancaſter, and ſkirting the county of Cheſter; its objects are moſt important, particularly in the immenſe trade between Liverpool and Mancheſter, and Hull, alſo by four different routes acroſs the grand-ridge; the navigations immediately connecting with it are, at Elleſmere-port in Netherpool, where it is joined by the Elleſmere canal; at Weſton by the Weaver river; at Runcorn-Gap, and again at Mancheſter, by Bridgewater's canal, beſides being croſſed thereby on Barton aqueduct; at Fiddlers-ferry, and alſo at Sankey Brook, by the Sankey canal; and at Mancheſter, near the junction of Medlock Brook, by the Mancheſter Bolton and Bury canal. The famous wet docks at Liverpool are an appendage to the Merſey navigation, and are indeed a part of that river, from not being excavated in ſolid ground, where houſes formerly ſtood, as they did on the ſite of the London Docks; but all of them, except the old Dock, which was a natural creek or pool, have been formed in the front of the town, by embankments in the river, which is here $\frac{3}{4}$ of a mile wide. In 1797 the tolls in theſe docks amounted to upwards of 13,300 *l.* annually, and their yearly expenſes to 5,100 *l.* but a debt of 113,419 *l.* ſtill remained on them.

177. MONKLAND CANAL. The general direction of this canal is nearly eaſt, for about 11$\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the county of La-

nerk

nerk in Scotland; its objects are the ſupply of Glaſgow, Paiſley, &c. with coals from Monkland collieries, and the export of farming products.

178. MONMOUTHSHIRE CANAL. Acts 32, 37, and 42 Geo. III.—The general direction of this compound of canals and rail-ways is nearly north, for 17¾ miles, in the counties of Monmouth and Brecknock in South Wales; its object is the export of coals, lime, and iron from the country through which it paſſes; near Pontypool it is joined by the Brecknock and Abergavenny canal, at Pill-Gwenlly it joins to the Sirhowy tram-road (by means of the Uſke river), and at Count-y-Billa farm, and at Riſca, it joins the ſame again by different branches belonging to this company. In Februrry 1796, the canal was completed from the Uſke to Pontypool, and in the ſame year the Beaufort Branch was completed. This company were authoriſed by their different acts to raiſe 275,330 *l.* in 100 *l.* ſhares: in 1802 theſe divided 2 *l.* 12 *s.* 6 *d.* each annually; it is provided, that after the profits amount to 10 *per cent.* and 1000 *l.* is accumulated as a fund, the tolls are to be reduced, firſt on coals, ſo as to keep the profits within that amount.

179. MONTGOMERYSHIRE CANAL. Act 34 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for 27 miles in the county of Salop, and of Montgomery in North Wales; its objects are the ſupply of the country with lime, the export of its farming products, and of coals, ſlate, free-ſtone, iron, lead, &c. from different parts near the line: it connects with the Severn river at Welſhpool. In Auguſt 1797, 16 miles of the canal were finiſhed and opened from the Ellesmere branch to Garthmill near Berriew. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 92,000*l.*; the amount of each ſhare 100 *l.*

180. NEATH CANAL. Acts 31 and 38 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal is nearly N.W. for about 14 miles in the county of Glamorgan in South Wales; its object is the export of coals, iron, lime-ſtone, &c. from the mines and works near the line. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 35,000 *l.*; they are authoriſed to make rail-way branches to any place within 4 miles of the line, by conſent of the land-owners. In 1798 this canal was nearly finiſhed, except about two miles at the lower end.

181. NEATH RIVER. The general direction of this navigation is nearly N. for about 4 miles in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales: its chief objects are the ſupply and trade of Neath, and the export of the coals and iron brought down by the canals.

182. NEN RIVER (*lower diſtrict*). Acts Geo. II., and 34 Geo. III. General direction about S.W. by a very crooked courſe of nearly 75 miles in the counties of Cambridge and Huntingdon,

Huntingdon, and ſkirting thoſe of Lincoln and Northampton. As all the rivers, and all drains almoſt in the fens in the country through which this river paſſes, are embanked on both ſides, and owing to the deficiency of fall are almoſt ſtill water, there is a great number of ſmaller navigable branches interſecting and croſſing each other in all directions. The powers of the commiſſioners under the above acts, extend only about 30 miles downwards to Peterborough bridge; the navigations through the fens are preſerved by the fen corporation in maintaining their drainage works.

183. NEN RIVER, (*upper diſtrict.*) The general direction of this navigation is nearly S.W. for about 23 miles in Northamptonſhire; its objects are the ſupply of Northampton and the ſurrounding country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural productions. The communication between Lynn, London, Liverpool, Mancheſter, &c. which it now effects is alſo important.

NEW RIVER. See Lea River.

184. *Newark and Bottesford.* In 1793, a canal was intended from the Dean river at Newark to the long level of the Grantham canal at Stainwith. In the Grantham, act 33 Geo. III., the tolls are provided that are to be paid at the junction of theſe canals.

185. *Newcaſtle and Carliſle.* In 1795, an engineer ſurveyed the line for a canal from the Tyne river at Newcaſtle to the Eden river at Carliſle, through Durham, Northumberland, and Cumberland, croſſing the grand ridge for a connection between the eaſt and weſt ſeas; and having a collateral branch of narrow canal and inclined-planes to the elevated mining diſtricts of Weardale and Teeſdale foreſts, &c. the eſtimate being 355,067 *l.*

186. *Newcaſtle and Haydon-Bridge.* In 1796, and again in March 1802, it was in contemplation to make a canal nearly following the courſe of the Tyne river, between Newcaſtle and Haydon, in Northumberland and Durham.

187. *Newcaſtle and Maryport.* Some years previous to 1801, a canal was projected between the tide-way in Maryport harbour and the Tyne river at Newcaſtle, croſſing the grand ridge, and paſſing between the two ſeas, through Cumberland and Durham.

188. NEWCASTLE (*under-line*) CANAL. Act 35 Geo. III. General direction nearly weſt, by a very bending courſe of 3 miles in the county of Stafford: its objects are the bringing of Caldon lime for manure, and the export of coals and farming products: it is conſiderably elevated. It was completed in a

ſhort time after the act was obtained, the company being authoriſed to raiſe 10,000*l.*; the amount of ſhares is only 50*l.* each.

189. NEWCASTLE (*under-line*) JUNCTION CANAL. Act 38 Geo. III. General direction about N.W. for a ſhort diſtance, in two detached parts, in the county of Stafford; its objects are the export of coals and agricultural produce. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 12,000 *l.*, the amount of their ſhares being 50 *l.* only

190. NEW CHAPEL CANAL. The general direction of this canal is eaſt, by a bending courſe of about 3½ miles, in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales; it is the ſole property of the owner of the land, and for whoſe improvement, by draining and otherwiſe, it was principally undertaken.

191. *Newport and Stone.* In June 1797, it was propoſed to make a canal from the Donnington Wood canal (the marquis of Stafford's) at Pave-lane, near Newport, by Eccleſhall, to the Trent and Merſey canal, near Stone, a courſe of about 18 miles in the counties of Salop and Stafford, croſſing the grand ridge; a branch was propoſed to Market-Drayton: it's object was the opening of a direct communication between Shrewſbury, and other places on or near the upper parts of the Severn, and the Trent and Merſey canal, for ſupplying the intermediate country with coals and lime, &c. In 1765, the Tern-bridge and Winsford canal was propoſed, and intended to paſs through nearly the ſame ground as the middle parts of this canal; as was alſo the Sandbach on another occaſion.

192. NEWRY CANAL (*Ireland.*) This canal, from the tide-way at Fadham point to the town of Newry, was completed in February 1761, by which brigs of 80 or 100 tons burthen can come up to Newry; it was intended to extend this to the Blackwater navigation, for conveying the Dungannon and Drumglaſs coals to Dublin; and the Iriſh parliament, between 1753 and 1771, granted different ſums for this purpoſe, amounting to 11,434 *l.*

193. NITH RIVER. The courſe of this river (ſometimes called the Nid) is nearly north for about 9 miles between Dumfries and Kirkcudbright counties, in Scotland; its object is the ſupply of Dumfries.

194. NOTTINGHAM CANAL. Act Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. by a crooked courſe of about 15 miles in the county of Nottingham; its objects are the export of coals from the ſeveral mines near it, and of farming products, importing lime, deals, &c. In 1802, this canal was completed.

195. NUTBROOK CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for 5 miles in the county of Derby: its object is the export of coals from the mines near the line. Sir Henry Hunloke and Edward Miller Mundy, esq. were authorised to raise 19,500*l.* between themselves, in 100*l.* shares; their profits not to exceed 8 *per cent.*; and proprietors of adjoining lands may make side branches.

196. OAKHAM CANAL. Acts 33 and 40 Geo. III. General direction about S.E., by a crooked course of 15 miles, in the counties of Leicester and Rutland; its objects are the supply of Oakum, and the country through which it passes, with coals, deals, &c., and the export of agricultural products. In November 1800, this canal was opened from Melton-Mowbray to Saxby bridge, and in January 1803, the whole was completed. This company was authorised to raise 86,000*l.* in 100*l.* shares.

197. OUSE RIVER (*Lewes lower Navigation*). Act 31 Geo. III. General direction nearly north, for near 9 miles, in the county of Sussex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

198. OUSE RIVER (*Lewes upper Navigation*). Act 30 Geo. III. General direction nearly north-west, by a bending course of about 22 miles, in the county of Sussex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and carrying chalk and manures to the lands, and the export of their agricultural products. This company were authorised to raise 25,000*l.* in 100*l.* shares, and the works were not to commence until 10,000*l.* of this was subscribed, and 10 *per cent.* thereon actually paid: it is to that public spirited and worthy nobleman lord Sheffield that the country are in a principal degree indebted for bringing about this useful measure. In 1801, it was proposed to make an extension of the Surry iron rail-way to join this navigation at Linfield. In 1802, the navigation was not completed up to Hammer bridge; but, in the following year, it was said that a new act for further powers for that purpose was in contemplation.

199. OUSE (*great*) RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly S.W., by a crooked course of about 84 miles in the counties of Norfolk, Cambridge, Huntingdon, and Bedford, and skirting Suffolk for a short distance: this course through the fens being from the tide-way in Lynn-deeps, (2 miles below that town), past Lynn, Telney, Salter's-Load, Denver-sluice, Rebeck, Little-port-chair, Ely, Harrimere, Hermitage-sluice, Erith, and thence by the regular channel of this river to Bedford. About the year 1780, a cut, of about 1½ mile in length, was made from this river, in Willington, to

the turnpike road in Cople, where a houſe and conveniences for a wharf were built at a great expenſe; but the conſent of the proprietor of the Ouſe navigation, who holds it under a particular grant from the crown, could not afterwards be obtained for this cut being uſed as a navigation. In 1785, and again in 1802, the London, Lynn, and Norwich canal was propoſed to join this river at Lynn. And in 1792, the Leiceſter and London was propoſed to join and croſs it at Bedford.

200. OUSE (*little*) RIVER. This river (often called the Brandon) has its courſe nearly eaſt, for about 20 miles, between the counties of Norfolk and Suffolk; its objects are the import of coals, deals, and the export of agricultural products.

201. OUSE RIVER (*York*). Act 23 Henry VIII. General direction nearly north-weſt for about 48 miles, between the Eaſt, Weſt, and North Ridings and Ainſty Liberty in Yorkſhire; its objects are the trade and ſupply of the city of York, and of the immenſely populous and trading diſtricts in the Weſt Riding. At Goole Bridge it is joined by the Don river; at Armyn, by the Ayre and Calder navigation; at Barnby, by the Derwent river; at Selby, by a cut of the Ayre and Calder navigation; near Cawood, by the Wharfe river; and at York, by the Foſs river.

202. OXFORD CANAL. Acts 9, 15, 26, 34, and 39, Geo. III. General direction nearly north, by a very crooked courſe in its northern half, of 91 miles, in the counties of Oxford, Warwick, and Northampton; it croſſes the grand ridge by a tunnel, and its northern part ſkirts along near to it on the weſtern ſide for many miles; its objects were a communication between the midland canals and the metropolis, (but a much nearer route is now opened by the Grand-Junction canal,) the ſupply of the northern parts of Oxfordſhire with coals, the export of farming products, &c. At Woolvercot is a cut of about $\frac{1}{4}$ mile (belonging to the duke of Marlborough), by which a communication with the Thames and Iſis navigation at Godſtow is effected. At Napton the Warwick and Napton canal joins this; and at Braunſton the Grand-Junction canal joins. This canal is 28 feet wide at top, 16 feet at bottom, and $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep. The number of ſtone and brick bridges on this line is 188, and of wooden, ſwing, draw, and foot bridges 66. The Fenny-Compton tunnel is 1188 yards long, $9\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, and $15\frac{1}{2}$ feet high. At Newbold is a tunnel 125 yards long, made under the church-yard and ſtreet, 16 feet high, and $12\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide, with a towing-path through it. At Wolfhamcote, alſo, there is a ſhort tunnel. At Pedlars bridge near Brinklow

is an aqueduct bridge of 12 arches, of 22 feet ſpan each. At Coſford on the Swift river, and at Clifton on the Avon, are others of two arches each; at Wolfhamcote, Adderbury, and Hampton-Gay, are other ſmaller aqueducts. This company have been authoriſed to raiſe, by their different acts, 330,000 *l.*; the amount of their ſhares is 100 *l.* each. In January 1800 theſe are ſaid to have ſold for 194 *l.*, and in 1802 for 275 *l.* each; the Grand Junction company being bound to make up the tolls hereon, to 10,000 *l.* annually, (if the works are kept in order) on condition of this company taking only certain tolls on goods paſſing to or from that canal, and agreeing to widen about 35 miles of their canal and locks, that large boats may paſs north of Braunſton, whenever the Grand Junction company ſhall require the ſame of this and the Coventry company. About the year 1792 the Stratford and Croperdy canal was propoſed to join this at Croperdy; and, at the ſame time, a canal from Hampton-Gay to Iſleworth was intended to join this at Hampton-Gay.

203. PARNELL'S CANAL. This ſhort canal, or rather water-level, has nearly a north direction for about ¼ a mile in the valley north of St. Auſtle, (near the ſouth coaſt of Cornwall) one mile above that town; it commences within an immenſe excavation of great depth, and open to day, which has, by the work of ages, been made in a rocky hill abounding with tin ore. It is tunnelled through the ſolid rock for 200 yards or more, on a level to the ſurface of the hill, and proceeds forwards thereon to the top of an inclined plane, of about 50 feet fall, where the boats are raiſed up an end by a windlaſs to ſhoot out the ore. At the bottom of the plane the ore is loaded into carts, to be carted to the ſtamping-mills. Small ſquare-headed boats are uſed, and four or five of them are linked together to be ſhoved through the tunnel, by means of chains, which are fixed along its ſides for that purpoſe, and they are afterwards towed along the canal to the head of the plane. This canal, tunnel, and plane, were made at the expenſe of Mr. Parnell, who owns the mine, about the year 1770, before which the ore was drawn up to the top edge of the pit or mine, and carted from thence.

204. PARRET RIVER. The courſe of this river is nearly ſouth-eaſt for about 5 miles in the county of Somerſet; its objects are the import of coals, and the export of agricultural products.

205. PEAK-FOREST CANAL. Acts 34, 40, and 45 of Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal and rail-way is nearly ſouth-eaſt for 21 miles in the counties of Cheſter and Derby; its principal object is the export of the Peak-Foreſt lime, and of coals from the neighbourhood of this canal. The line of

the canal is 15 miles in length, and of the rail-way 6 miles; there is a cut of ¼ a mile to Whaely bridge, and a rail-way branch of 1½ mile to Marple. Over the Merſey river, near Marple, is a grand aqueduct bridge of 3 arches, each 60 feet ſpan and 78 feet high, the whole height of the ſtructure being near 100 feet, which was built in the year 1799. The works were completed on the 1ſt of May 1800. The company were authoriſed to raiſe, by the firſt act, 150,000 *l.*, each ſhare being 100 *l.*, which in 1802 bore a premium of 10 *per cent.*

206. PENTLAND FIRTH. This ſtreight has nearly a weſt direction between Caithneſs county, at the north-eaſtern extremity of Scotland, and the Orkney iſlands. The Inverneſs and Fort-William canal, now cutting a great way ſouth of this for the uſe of ſhips, is expected much to leſſen the uſe of this firth.

207. POLBROOK CANAL. Act 37 Geo. III. General direction nearly ſouth eaſt for about 5 miles in Cornwall; its objects are the import of coals, and the export of ſtone and agricultural products. This company may raiſe 18,000 *l.* in 50 *l.* ſhares.

208. POOLE HARBOUR. This ſpacious inlet or harbour has nearly a weſt courſe for about 9 miles in the county of Dorſet; its object, beſides the general trade and ſupply of the neighbourhood, is the export of a fine potter's clay found near to Corfe Caſtle, in the iſle of Purbeck, and paving-ſtones and free-ſtone from thence.

209. PORTSMOUTH HARBOUR. This inlet or harbour has nearly a north courſe for about 5½ miles in Hampſhire.

210. *Portſmouth and Croyden Canal.* In 1802 and 1803, a canal was in contemplation from Portſmouth Harbour to the Croydon Canal, paſſing Havant, Chicheſter, Arundel, Horſham, Ryegate, and Merſtham; but the oppoſition of the land-owners and favourers of a rail-way ſcheme from Portſmouth to London procured its rejection in parliament. The eſtimated expenſe was 721,000 *l.*, and 800,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* ſhares was propoſed to be raiſed; the expected revenue was eſtimated at 100,000 *l. per annum.* While this line was in contemplation, an attempt was made to draw the public attention to a different line of canal from Portſmouth Harbour, through Southampton Water and the Itchen River, to Wincheſter; thence to Alresford, near to Alton and Farnham, and to the Wey river at Godalming: from near Weſtley on that river, the propoſed line of the Grand Surry canal was to be followed to Deptford and the Thames river. The eſtimate mentioned on this occaſion was 348,735 *l.*

211. *Portſmouth and London Rail-way.* In 1803, an engineer was employed to ſurvey the line of a rail-way from Portſmouth

mouth town to the weſt end of Stamford-Street, near Black-friars-Bridge, London. The eſtimated expenſe of this work was 400,000*l.*

212. RAMSDEN'S CANAL. Act 14 Geo. III. General direction nearly ſouth-weſt for about 8 miles in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects at firſt were the ſupply and trade of Huddersfield town, but it will ſhortly have conſiderable importance as part of the ſhorteſt line of navigation between Hull and Mancheſter and Liverpool. Sir John Ramſden, who is the ſole proprietor of this canal and of Huddersfield town, in 1766 employed Mr James Brindley to plan this canal; and, after his death, it was begun and quickly completed by Mr. Luke Holt. The proprietors' profits are never to exceed 6 *per cent.* upon the monies laid out.

213. *Reading and Maidenhead.* In 1770, a canal was propoſed from the Thames river, at Bolter's Lock near Taplow-Hill, to the Thames again, at Sunning near Reading and to the Kennet river, the diſtance being near 15 miles by the canal, and by the river above 30 miles; a barge of 120 tons being 3 days (and often in dry times as many weeks) in performing the voyage, at an expenſe equal to 50*l.*; while, by this canal, it was calculated that a barge might at all times, except froſt, perform it in 6 hours, at 4*l.* 7*s.* expenſe, including ½*d.* per ton to the truſtees as a toll. No private property was to be allowed in this canal, but the money was propoſed to be raiſed by life annuities, out of which, and the tolls, the river navigation was to be improved between Bolter's Lock and Sunning, without any new tolls being charged thereon; and when a ſufficient fund was accumulated for repairs and management, the tolls were to ceaſe, and the canal be entirely free.

214. RIBBLE RIVER. The direction of this river is nearly eaſt for about 12 miles in the county of Lancaſter; its objects are the ſupply and trade of Preſton town, and the export of coals brought down by the Douglas river, which joins it near Haſketh.

215. RIPON CANAL. Act 7 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. by a bending courſe of about 7 miles in the Weſt, and ſkirting the North Riding of Yorkſhire: its objects are the ſupply of Ripon, and the export of agricultural products, ſtone, &c.

216. ROCHDALE CANAL. Acts 34, 40, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. by a bending courſe of 31½ miles in the counties of Lancaſter and York; it croſſes the grand ridge by a deep-cutting: its general objects are the communication between Liverpool and Mancheſter, with Hallifax, Wakefield, Hull, &c. the export of coals, paving-ſtones, &c. At Piccadilly ſtreet in

Manchester it is joined by the Manchester Ashton and Oldham canal. On the 28th of December 1798, the east end of the line from Sowerby bridge to Rochdale was completed; on 18th September 1802 it was continued to Lomeside Wharf; and on 21st December 1804, the whole line was completed and opened to Manchester. This company were authorised by their first act to raise 391,000*l.* (the amount of shares 100*l.* each), and by the last act they were authorised to raise a large sum in addition. Cuts or rails-ways may be made to any present or future coal-mines near the line. In 1791 a branch from this canal was proposed from near Todmarden (104 feet below the summit-level) to 2 miles beyond Colne, having a tunnel of 1¼ mile in length, about 3 miles N.E. of Todmarden.

217. Rother River. The general direction of this river is nearly N.W. by a crooked course of about 19 miles in the counties of Sussex and Kent; its objects are the import of coals, &c. and the export of oak-timber and agricultural products; near Rye harbour, opposite to Pleydon-heights, it is joined by the Shorncliff and Rye canal. In December, 1799, it was proposed to improve the navigation of this river between Rye and Robertsbridge, to extend the navigation of the Winchelsea branch to Siddlescomb, and to make a new navigable branch from Blackwall to Smallhithe near Tenterden. In April 1802, this last branch was proposed to be joined by the intended Medway and Rother canal.

218. *Sandbach Canal.* In the year 1793, a canal was proposed to be made from the Severn river below Shrewsbury to the Trent and Mersey canal at Sandbach, with a cut to Betley, and another to join the Chester canal near Nantwich. The Ternbridge and Winsford, and the Newport and Stone canals, have at different times been proposed through parts of the same tract of country.

219. Sankey Canal. Act 28 Geo. II. and 1 Geo. III. General direction nearly N. W. by so very bending a course, that it exceeds a semicircle; its length is 12½ miles in the county of Lancaster; its objects are the export of coals and slates, and the supply and trade of St. Hellens and Newton, and the copper, glass, and other works near them; near Sankey bridge it connects with, and is crossed by, the side-cut made in 1804 for avoiding the shallows in the Mersey, between Warrington and Runcorn. This canal is 48 feet wide and 5½ feet deep in water; it has 18 wooden swing-bridges. The sum of money to be raised for the purposes of this canal is not limited as is done in all modern canal acts. In June 1797, a loaded barge was rowed 20 miles on this canal by a machine worked by a steam-engine on board the barge.

220. Severn

220. SEVERN RIVER. Acts 19 Hen. VII. 23 Hen. VIII. and 12 and 43 Geo. III.—The general direction of this noble river is nearly north, by a crooked and bending courſe of about 174 miles, ſkirting the counties of Somerſet, Glouceſter, Glamorgan, Monmouth, and Hereford, and through the counties of Worceſter, Salop, and Montgommery; commencing in the tide-way in the Briſtol Channel, at Flat-Holm light-houſe, and terminating in the Montgommery canal at Welſhpool. The trade of various kinds is very great on this important river, and the many navigations which connect with it. At the lower layer it is joined by the Glamorganſhire canal and Cardiff and Merthyr-Tydvill rail-way; at New Amſterdam by the Sirhowy rail-way; at Naſh by the Uſke river; (not far from its junction with Monmouthſhire canal, and a branch of Sirhowy rail-way); at King's Road by the Bath Avon river: at Beachley by the Wye river; at Berkley-Pill, Hotch-Crib, and at Glouceſter by the Glouceſter and Berkley canal; at Framiload by the Stroudwater river and canal; at Glouceſter, on each ſide of Alney Iſle, and at Laſſington by the Hereford and Glouceſter; at Fletcher's leap with Come-hill canal; at Tewkſbury by the Stratford Avon; at Diglas by the Worceſter and Birmingham; at Hawford by the Droitwich canal; at Stourport by the Stour river and Staffordſhire and Worceſterſhire, and the Leominſter canals; at Coal-port and at Loads-croft near Coalbrooke dale, by the Shropſhire canal; and at Shrewſbury by the Shrewſbury and Elleſmere canals. Some years ago, Mr. John Wilkinſon introduced ſome barges made of caſt iron-plates for navigating this river. In the 16 Geo. III. an act was obtained for erecting a caſt-iron bridge of one arch (the firſt ever erected) over this river at Broſely or Madeley-wood near Coalbrook dale. At Shrewſbury the very long and curving loop of the river is tunnelled through by a ſmall arch for conveying water to ſeveral mills at its junction again with the river. In the year 1765, the Ternbridge and Windsford canal was propoſed to join this river at Ternbridge; in 1786 the Stourbridge and Worceſter was propoſed to join at Diglis; in 1793, the Sandbach, and another canal in oppoſition to the Elleſmere (called, in ſome maps, the Eaſtern Grand Trunk,) were propoſed to join this river below Shrewſbury. In 1795, the Welſhpool and Leominſter was intended to join at Welſhpool; in 1797, the Briſtol and Glouceſter was propoſed to join, both at Glouceſter and at Worceſter, to this river; and, in 1801, the Severn and Wye rail-way was propoſed to join this river at Lidney.

Severn and Wye Rail-way. See Dean-Foreſt rail-way.

221. SHANNON RIVER, (*Ireland.*) The general direction of this famous river is nearly N.E. by a crooked courſe of more than

than 100 miles, between the counties of Kerry, Limerick, Clare, Tipperary, Galway, King's county, Meath, Longford, Elphin, and Leitrim in Ireland. It commences in the Atlantic Ocean at Loop-head, and terminates at Carrick on the Shannon, which is 65 miles above Banagher. It is joined by the Grand Canal at Tormanbury, and it alſo is joined by the Limerick canal. The Iriſh parliament, at different periods, between 1753 and 1771, granted 39,160*l.* for the improvement of this navigation; the upper part was not completed till 1804.

222. SHORNCLIFF AND RYE CANAL. Defence act 43 Geo. III.—The general direction of this ſingular canal is nearly S.W. by a bending courſe of about 18 miles, through Romney marſh, in the counties of Kent and Suſſex. It is ſo nearly level with the ſea as to require no locks but the tide-locks at its extremities. Its objects, beſides aiding the defence of this part of our coaſt, is the import of coals and ſea-beach for road-making; the export of farming products, and improving the drainage of the marſh. This canal is of width and depth ſufficient for veſſels of 200 tons to navigate; it has a military road by its ſide, and is flanked throughout with batteries of great ſtrength. This canal was projected by the royal military engineers, in the autumn of 1804; and in June laſt 1805, 3000 men were ſaid to be employed on it.

223. SHREWSBURY CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III. General direction nearly E. by a crooked courſe of 17½ miles in length in the county of Salop; its objects are the export of coals from its eaſtern end for the ſupply of Shrewſbury, and ſupplying the ſame with farming products, and the country with lime and manures; at Wombridge it is joined by the Ketley canal. Near Atcham is a tunnel of 970 yards in length, and 10 feet wide, which has a towing-path 3 feet wide through it, conſtructed of wood, and ſupported on bearers from the wall, ſo as not to diminiſh the water-way. At Long is a long embankment and an aqueduct bridge, or rather trough of caſt iron, over the Tern river, 62 yards long, and 16 feet above the level meadows, of which we have already given a deſcription in this article; at Roddington are another embankment and a common aqueduct bridge, 21 feet above the ſurface of the Roden river, over which the canal paſſes, and at Pimley there are another embankment and aqueduct of leſs height and width than the former ones. In March 1796, the Long aqueduct was finiſhed; and in February 1797, the whole line was completed and opened. This company was authoriſed to raiſe 70,000*l.* the amount of each ſhare being 100*l.*

224. SHROPSHIRE CANAL. Act 28 Geo. III.—The general direction of this canal, or rather ſyſtem of water-levels and inclined

inclined-planes, is nearly north, about 7¾ miles in the county of Salop; its objects are the export of coals and iron, and the carrying up of lime-ſtone. It communicates near Oaken-Gates with the Shrewſbury canal. The works were completed, and the canal opened in 1792; it is ſaid to have coſt only 47,500 *l.* In 1797, the tolls produced a net profit of 6 per cent.

225. SIRHOWY RAIL-WAY. Act 42 Geo. III. (for Monmouthſhire canal.)—The general direction of this rail-way or tram-road, is nearly N.W. for about 28 miles in the counties of Monmouth, and of Brecknock in South Wales: its object is the export of coals and iron from the rich mineral country through which it paſſes: at Court-y-billa farm, and at Riſca, it is joined by rail-way branches of the Monmouthſhire canal. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 45,000 *l.* the amount of their ſhares being 100 *l.* and they have engaged to pay 110*l.* annually to the Monmouthſhire canal company.

226. SLEAFORD NAVIGTION. Act 32 Geo. III. General direction nearly weſt for about 12 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the ſupply of Sleaford and the ſurrounding country with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming produce. This company was authoriſed to raiſe 23,000 *l.* the amount of ſhares 100 *l.* each.

227. SOHAM LODE. The direction of this navigable cut or lode is nearly S.E. for about 4 miles, and is embanked through the level fens in Cambridgeſhire: its objects are the ſupply of coals, &c. to Soham, and the export of farming products.

228. SOMERSETSHIRE COAL CANAL. Acts 34, 36, and 42 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 10 miles, beſides a principal branch of 7½ miles nearly parallel thereto, in the county of Somerſet: its object is the export of coals from the mines north of Mendip hills. This company was authoriſed to raiſe 185,000 *l.* the amount of ſhares 100 *l.* each. The profits are not to exceed 10 *per cent*, but after 1000 *l.* are accumulated and placed in government ſecurities, as a fund for contingencies, the tolls on coals are to be lowered.

229. SOUTHAMPTON AND SALISBURY CANAL. Acts 35 and 40 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for about 17 miles, in two detached lengths, in the counties of Hants and Wilts; its objects are the trade between Southampton and Saliſbury, the ſupply of theſe towns, and the export of the ſurplus farming products of the intermediate country. Upon part of the canal there is a tunnel of conſiderable length cloſe to, and indeed under part of the north end of Saliſbury town: conſiderable difficulties ſeem to have attended the making of this tunnel, owing to the looſeneſs of the ſoil; and the quick-ſands at the foot of the cliff, by the ſide of Southampton Water, have

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alſo proved a very ſerious obſtacle. An aqueduct is built over Shirley Brook. This company have been authoriſed to raiſe 96,000 *l.* the amount of each ſhare being 100 *l.*

230 SOUTHAMPTON WATER. Acts 11 Henry VII. and 18 Henry VIII.—This noble eſtuary of the Anton and other rivers has a N. W. direction for about 10 miles in Hampſhire. Southampton water is navigable for large ſhips; it commences in the channel between Hampſhire and the Iſle of Wight at Calſhot Caſtle, and terminates near Red bridge, where it is joined by the Anton river (formerly navigable near 6 miles to Romſey), and the Andover canal near one of the terminations of the Southampton and Saliſbury canal; near Saliſbury it is joined by the Itchin river, (about ¾ of a mile from the commencement of the Southampton and Saliſbury canal.)

231. STAFFORDSHIRE and WORCESTERSHIRE CANAL. Acts 6, 10, and 30, of Geo. III. General direction nearly north for 46½ miles in the counties of Worceſter and Stafford; its middle part is very conſiderably elevated; and it croſſes the grand ridge without a tunnel; its trade in the export of coals, pottery-wares, hard wares, &c. is immenſe, beſides the general trade between the Severn, the Merſey, and Trent, which for a long time paſſed excluſively through it. Near to Stourton, and to Stewponey, it is joined by the Stourbridge canal, and at Alderſley or Antherley by the Old Birmingham canal. On this canal are three ſhort tunnels; one is near Stewponey, the other at Whitlington, and the other is an arched-way under part of the town of Kidderminſter; at which place there is an aqueduct-bridge over the Stour river, another at Preſtwood on Wordſley brook, another near Milford on the Sow river, and another at Haywood mill over the Trent river. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 100,000 *l.* the amount of each ſhare being 100 *l.* In September 1805, the yearly dividend on theſe was ſtated to be 24 *l.*

232. STAINFORTH AND KEADBY CANAL. Acts 33 and 38 of Geo. III. General direction nearly W. for 15 miles in the counties of Lincoln and York; its objects are the import of coals and export of agricultural produce, with a better drainage of the country through which it paſſes. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 54,200 *l.* the amount of ſhares being 100 *l.* each.

233. STOKE RIVER. The direction of this river (ſometimes called the Winſon) is W. for about 8½ miles in the county of Norfolk; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural products.

234. STORT RIVER. The general direction of this river is almoſt N.E. by a bending courſe of about 13 miles between

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the counties of Eſſex and Hertford; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

235. STOUR RIVER (*Chriſtchurch.*) The direction of this river is neasly N.W. for about 35 miles in the counties of Hants and Dorſet; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

236. STOUR RIVER (*Harwich.*) The general direction of this river is nearly W. by a bending courſe for about 29 miles between the counties of Eſſex and Suſſex; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

237. STOUR RIVER (*Sandwich.*) Act 7 Henry VII. General direction nearly W. by a crooked courſe of about 18 miles in the county of Kent; its objects are the ſupply and trade of Canterbury, and the export of farming products.

238. *Stour River (Stourbridge.)* Many years ago the Stour river from the Severn at Stour-port to the town of Stourbridge, (paſſing the town of Kidderminſter,) about 14 miles, was made navigable by means of ſluices, weirs, and other works; but ſoon after there happened ſo ſudden and violent a flood as to deſtroy all theſe works. The Stafford and Worceſter, and the Stourbrige canals, have ſince ſupplied more effectually the place of this river navigation.

239. STOURBRIDGE CANAL. Acts 16 and 22 of Geo. III. General direction nearly E. by a crooked courſe of about 5 miles in the county of Stafford; its objects are the export of coals, iron-ſtone, &c. and forming part of the communication between the Old Birmingham and the Severn, &c. This company were at firſt authoriſed to raiſe 30,000 *l.* in 100 *l.* ſhares; the laſt act authoriſed calling upon the ſubſcribers for 7,500 *l.* more, by which their ſhares are now increaſed to 125 *l.* each.

240. *Stourbridge and Worceſter.* In 1786, a canal was propoſed, and ſupported by the late lord Dudley and Ward, from the Severn river at Diglis below Worceſter city to the Stourbridge canal at that place, paſſing Bromſgrove; its propoſed length was 26 miles. The bill paſſed the commons but was rejected by the lords.

241. STOVER CANAL. Act 32 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for $6\frac{1}{2}$ miles in the country of Devon; its objects are the import of coals, ſhelly ſea-ſand, and lime, as manures, and the export of potters' clay (uſed in Staffordſhire, Lancaſhire, &c.) and a peculiar kind of imperfect coal found in ſmall quantities at Bovey-Tracey. James Templar, Eſq. is ſole proprietor of this canal.

242. *Stowmarket and Bury Rail-way.* In December, 1802, it was in contemplation to make a rail-way from the Stowmarket and Ipſwich navigation at Stowmarket, to the Lark river

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at Bury St. Edmund's, for the purpoſe of ſupplying the latter place, and the intermediate country with coals, and for the readier export of farming products.

243. STOWMARKET AND IPSWICH NAVIGATION. Act 33 and 45 Geo. III.—The general direction of this navigation (which follows the courſe of the Orwell river) is nearly N.W. for about 26 miles in the county of Suffolk; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products; it is joined by the Stour river near Harwich. This company were, by an act prior to the above, authoriſed to raiſe 14,300 *l.* by the firſt act above 15,000 *l.* more might be raiſed; the laſt act was for improving the port of Ipſwich by deepening the ſame, ſo that ſhips might unload at the wharfs, &c. In December, 1802, it was propoſed that the Stowmarket and Bury rail-way ſhould join this navigation at Stowmarket.

244. STRATFORD CANAL. Acts 33, 35, and 39 Geo. III.—General direction nearly N. for 23½ miles in the counties of Warwick and Worceſter; its objects are the export of coals, lime, and paving-ſtones, and as a link in the great chain of canal communication; at Kingſwood in Rowington a branch of this canal connects with the Warwick and Birmingham. This company was authoriſed to raiſe 225,000 *l.* the amount of ſhares 100 *l.*

245. STROUDWATER CANAL. Acts 34 Geo. II. 15 Geo. III. 23 (for Thames and Severn,) and 33 and 37 Geo. III. (for Glouceſter and Berkley).—The general direction of this canal is about E. for 8 miles (following nearly the courſe of Stroudwater river) in the county of Glouceſter; its objects are the import of coals, and forming part of the firſt direct communication between the Severn and Thames and Iſis rivers; at Wheatenhurſt the Glouceſter and Berkley canal croſſes and connects herewith. The firſt of the above acts gave powers to raiſe 20,000 *l.* in 200 *l.* ſhares, intending to execute the works under the powers of an act of 2 Geo. II. for improving the Stroudwater river, but ſeveral expenſive law-ſuits put a ſtop to the works, until the ſecond act was obtained. In 1802 the dividends on ſhares in this concern were 6 *l.* each, and their price was about 225 *l.*

246. *Stroudwater River.* The act of 2 Geo. II. paſſed for making this river navigable between the Severn and the town of Stroud, a diſtance of about 8 miles; but the oppoſition of the millers and others prevented its being accompliſhed, until 34 Geo. II. when Mr. Bridge undertook to conſtruct the navigation, without waſte of water or prejudice to the mills, by means of cranes to hoiſt the goods in boxes out of the boats in one pound, and place them in others in the adjoining pounds, but this ſcheme miſcarried, and the projectors were nearly

ruined: at length the Stroudwater canal was conſtructed by the ſide of this river.

247. SURREY IRON RAIL-WAY, (*Northern part*). Acts 41 and 45 Geo. III.—This, the firſt public rail-way conſtructed near the metropolis, has about a S.E. direction, for 10 miles, in the county of Surrey: its objects are the import of coals and manures, and the export of chalk, flint, fire-ſtone, fullers'-earth, and agricultural products. The width of each track is about $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet, the waggons carry about $3\frac{1}{4}$ tons each, and ſeveral of them are often linked together to be drawn by one horſe. This rail-way croſſes the Wandle river twice on wooden bridges. On the 9th of January, 1802, the entrance baſon at Wandſworth was completed and opened; in October of the ſame year, the rail-way from the ſide thereof croſſing the turnpike road, and extending to Garrat was completed, and in 1805, it was opened to Croydon. The company were, by the firſt act, authoriſed to raiſe 50,000 *l.* and a further ſum, by the act of the late ſeſſions, the amount of ſhares 100 *l.* Few ſubjects have been more variably ſtated than the coſt per mile of this rail-way. Mr. John Philips, after noticing in his Hiſtory the commencement of this work, adds, that iron rail-ways are made at an expenſe of about 300 *l.* per mile. The original eſtimate was, we believe, 2,000 *l.* per mile; at a public meeting at Goſport, in September 1803, it was ſtated by ſome favourers of the extenſion of a canal from Croydon to Portſmouth, that the expenditure on this rail-way had amounted to 6,400 *l.* per mile; but the advocates for extending this rail-way to Portſmouth inſtead of a canal, then contended that the expenſe did not exceed 4,500 *l.* per mile: while Mr. James Malcolm, in his Agricultural Report on Surrey, after ſtating the great pains he had been at to come at the facts, ſays, "inſtead, therefore of the expenſe being 2000 *l.* per mile, it appears if it would be 7000 *l.*!" (this includes all the expenditure of the company). The rates of tonnage are from 2 *d.* to 6 *d.* per ton, per mile, for different goods; and owners of adjoining lands may uſe the rail-way as a drift road. Ten pounds annually are to be paid to the city of London by this company, for connecting with the river Thames.

248. SURREY IRON RAIL-WAY (*Southern part*). Act 43 Geo. III.—The general direction of this line of rail-way is nearly S. by a bending courſe of about 16 miles in the county of Surrey; upon the chalk-hills or North Downs, it is greatly elevated; its objects are the import of coals and manures, and the export of chalk, lime, fire-ſtone, free-ſtone, flints, fullers'-earth, and agricultural products. The width of this double rail-way, including a path on each ſide for the carriage drivers is 24 feet. Some of the waggons hereon have their fore-wheels placed

placed quite forward, and the hind-wheels nearly under the middle of the waggon, by which means ſtones, &c. can be ſhot out of them when required. The ſhares in this concern are 100 *l.* each. About June, 1805, this rail-way between Croydon and Merſtham was opened, and 12 waggons loaded with ſtone weighing 38½ tons, where drawn with eaſe by one horſe for 6 miles down the deſcent to Croydon-turnpike, in 1 hour and 41 minutes; from which place the ſame horſe ſet off again with 4 other loaded waggons attached, and perſons riding on them, making in the whole more than 55 tons, which it was ſaid he drew with apparent eaſe.

249. SWALE RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly N.W. for about 35 miles by a crooked courſe in the North Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the carriage of coals, and the export of farming products.

250. SWANSEA CANAL. Act 34 Geo. III. Direction about N.N.E. for 17½ miles in the counties of Glamorgan and Brecknock, in South Wales; its objects are the export of coals, and iron-ſtone, iron, &c. the carriage of lime to the intermediate works and country; and copper-ore, to the works, &c. From near Swanſea to Llanſamlet is a branch of 3 miles in length; and a rail-way branch of about 2 miles to a large coal mine, where an audit or tunnel of 3 miles in length has been made under ground, and out of which 200 tons of coals are daily brought. This canal company was authoriſed to raiſe 90,000 *l.*, the amount of ſhares 100 *l.* each; and it was provided in the act, that this canal ſhould be completed in 4 years; ſeveral rail-way branches may be made.

251. SWANSEA AND OYSTERMOUTH RAIL-WAY. Act 44 Geo. III.—General direction nearly S.W. by a bending courſe, following cloſely the ſea ſhore for about 7½ in length, in the county of Glamorgan, in South Wales; its object is the carrying of lime-ſtone, lime, and coals. This rail-way connects with the Swanſea canal in Swanſea harbour, and proceeds thence to the Mumbles lime-ſtone quarries near Oyſtermouth.

252. TAMAR MANURE NAVIGATION. Act 36 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for abont 22 miles, following the courſe of the Tamar river, on the ſouthern coaſt of the counties of Devon and Cornwall; its objects are the import of coals, and ſea-ſand and lime as manures; and the export of agricultural products. This company is authoriſed to raiſe 121,000 *l.*, the amount of each ſhare 50 *l.*

253. TAMAR RIVER. The general direction of this river is nearly north by a crooked courſe of about 6 miles, between the counties of Devon and Cornwall; it is uſed for the import of coals, ſea-ſand, lime, &c. and the export of ſlate and agricultural

tural products. In 1774, an act paſſed for the Bude and Launceſton canal intended to connect with this at Calſtock, but it was never carried into execution.

254. *Tarbeth Canal.* In 1773, Mr. Watt ſurveyed the iſthmus between Eaſt and Weſt Tarbeth lochs, on the weſt coaſt of Scotland, for a canal to communicate between Loch Fine and the ſound of Jura; the eſtimates were, for a canal with locks 7 feet deep, 17,988 *l.*; and for one 10 feet deep and a proportional width, 23,884 *l.* The expenſes of a thorough cut without locks, of 12 feet deep at high-water, 73,849 *l.*; and for one of 15 feet deep, 120,789 *l.* The Crinan canal, ſince conſtructed more effectually anſwers the purpoſe.

255. Tavistock Canal. Act 43 Geo. III. General direction N.E. for about 4½ miles in the county of Devon: its objects are the export of ſlate, copper-ore, and other minerals, and of agricultural products; the import of coals, lime, and other articles for the ſupply of Taviſtock town and the ſurrounding country; and to facilitate the working of the mines in Morwellham down. This company is authoriſed to raiſe 50,000 *l.*, and the amount of each ſhare is 50 *l.* The duke of Bedford may make collateral branches or rail-ways to this canal in any part.

256. Tavy River. The general direction of this river is N.E. for about 2¾ miles in the county of Devon; its objects are the import of coals, ſea-ſand, &c. and the export of ſlate, copper-ore, &c.

257. Taw River. The direction of this river, or eſtuary, is nearly eaſt for about 8 miles on the north-weſt coaſt of Devonſhire: its objects are the ſupply of Barnſtaple and the adjacent country with coals and other articles, and the export of farming products.

258. Tay River. The general direction of this river, firth, or eſtuary, is nearly weſt for about 26 miles between Angus and Fife, and in the county of Perth in Scotland; its objects are the ſupply and trade of Dundee and Perth, and the adjacent country. At Stanley, three ſoughs or tunnels of conſiderable length (one of them from 12 to 9 feet wide arched with ſtone) are driven through the hill, which occaſions a great loop in the river, by which 24 to 20 feet fall is gained, for a large portion of the ſtream, to work cotton-mills and other machinery; and running in this ſubterraneous channel it never freezes.

259. Tees River. The general direction of this river is nearly S.E. by a crooked courſe of about 12 miles between the counties of York and Durham; its objects are the trade of Stockton, and the export of agricultural products. In 1763,

the Winſton and Stockton canal was propoſed for extending this navigation weſtward to the canal diſtrict at Winſton.

260. Teign River. The direction of this river, or eſtuary, is weſt for about 4½ miles in the ſouth-eaſtern coaſt of Devonſhire; its objects are the import of Newcaſtle or Welſh coals, and the export of potters' clay, bovey coal, and agricultural products.

261. *Ternbridge and Winsford.* In 1765, Mr. Whitworth propoſed a canal from the Severn river at Ternbridge below Shrewſbury, to the Weaver navigation at Winsford, 63½ miles in the counties of Salop, Stafford, and Cheſter, with a branch therefrom, near Bridgeford; 43 miles to the Trent river at Wilden-Ferrey. It was propoſed to be 27 feet wide at top, 18 at bottom, and 5 feet deep, with a towing path on both ſides; the locks 60 feet long and 13 wide, and about 10 feet riſe each: the boats of 50 tons burthen: 78 road-bridges, and 25 accommodation bridges were thought neceſſary, and 162 aqueducts and culverts: the eſtimated expenſe was 99,800*l.* The Staffordſhire and Worceſterſhire, and the Trent and Merſey canals, which were adopted in the following year, embrace all the general objects of this canal. The Sandbach, and the Newport and Stone, have ſince been propoſed to occupy parts of the ſouth-weſtern end of this line, but, like this, were overruled.

262. Thames. An account of this river will be given in treating of the metropolis.

263. Thames and Isis Navigation. Act 11, 15, 28, and 35 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N. W. by a very ſerpentine and crooked courſe of about 110 miles between the counties of Surrey and Berks, and of Bucks, Oxford, and Glouceſter; its objects are the ſupply of London and the carriage of coals, and a variety of other articles: near Reading it connects with the Kennet river; at Abingdon, the Wilts and Berks canal joins this navigation: at Badcock's garden in Oxford, this navigation is joined by the Oxford canal, and at Godſtow, by the duke of Marlborough's cut from the ſame canal. The gentlemen of the counties adjoining this navigation are commiſſioners for executing, in different diſtricts, the above acts; they have borrowed 60,800*l.* which they have expended, over and above the ſurplus of the tolls, in making 24 ſide-cuts with opening weirs and pound-locks, with a horſe towing-path, and other works for improving this navigation, which is now accompliſhed, ſo that very long and wide barges drawing 3 feet 10 inches, can in general paſs. In 1800, Mr. Wilſon prepared a deſign and model for his Majeſty, of a caſt-iron bridge of one arch, propoſed to be erected over the Thames at Datchet.

In

In 1770, the Reading and Maidenhead canal was propoſed to join this navigation at Sunning, and at Bolter's-lock; in 1802, a weſtern branch of the Grand Junction canal was propoſed to join this navigation at Harleyford near Great Marlow, and croſſing the ſame at that place, it was to proceed to join it again near Reading; and in the ſame year another branch, from the Grand Junction, through Ayleſbury, was propoſed to join this navigation near to Abingdon, and to the Wilts and Berks canal.

264. *Thames and Avon Canal.* In the reign of Charles II., Mr. Joſeph Moxon was employed to ſurvey the line for a canal, and a bill was prepared and brought into parliament for the Thames and Iſis navigation at Lechlade, by Cricklade, Malmſbury, Chippenham, and thence by the courſe of the Avon river to Bath, 40 miles in length: in 1754, this deſign was again revived, with the idea of employing the ſoldiers upon it; and it was ſtated that a canal 50 feet wide at top, 30 at bottom, and 4 feet deep, might thus be completed for 1000*l.* per mile.

265. THAMES AND MEDWAY CANAL. Act 40 and 44 of Geo. III. General direction S.E. for 8½ miles in the county of Kent; its object is for ſhortening the voyage of barges from Graveſend to Chatham round by the Nore. In December 1801 this canal was completed from Graveſend to Denton. The company were authoriſed to raiſe by the firſt act 60,000*l.* in 100*l.* ſhares, and a further ſum by the laſt act, and they are to pay 1*s.* annually to the city of London as conſervators of the Thames river, for the liberty of connecting therewith, and 1*s.* to the corporation of Rocheſter, as conſervators of the Medway for the ſame privilege.

266. THAMES AND SEVERN CANAL. Act 23, 31, and 36 of Geo. III. General direction Eaſt for 30¾ miles in the counties of Glouceſter and Wilts: it croſſes the grand ridge by a tunnel; its objects are a communication between the Severn and Thames rivers, the ſupply of the country through which it paſſes with coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products. The famous tunnel on this canal at Sapperton, is 4300 yards long, the arch being 15 feet wide in the clear, and 250 feet beneath the higheſt point of the hill, which proved to be hard rock, much of which required blaſting, and ſome of it was ſo ſolid as to need no arch of maſonry to ſupport it; the other parts are arched above, and have inverted arches in the bottom; the coſt of excavating this tunnel, in 1788, amounted to 8 guineas per cubic yard. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 255,000*l.*, the ſhares being 100*l.* each; there was a proviſion that 3 *per cent.* intereſt ſhould be paid

(out of the principal) to the ſubſcribers on their ſhares, until the canal was completed and opened. No ſtamps were neceſſary to the proceedings of this company. In September 1800, it was intended to make from near Ingleſham a forked branch paſſing Faringdon and Highworth, to connect with the Wilts and Berks canal in two places.

267. THANET'S CANAL. Act 13 Geo. III. Direction nearly N.E. for about ¾ of a mile in length in the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; it was cut at the private expenſe of the earl of Thanet, through whoſe eſtate alone it paſſes, except one cloſe: its object is to convey coal to the lime-kilns, and to export lime as a manure and for building.

268. THYRN AND BURE NAVIGATION. The general direction of theſe rivers is about N.W. for nearly 30 miles in the county of Norfolk; the objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of farming products.

269. TIEV RIVER. This river, (ſometimes called the Tivey or Teifi river,) has nearly an eaſt courſe for about 39 miles between the counties of Cardigan and Pembroke, and Caermarthen in South Wales; its objects are the ſupply of Llanbedr and Cardigan, and the export of agricultural products.

270. TONE AND PARRET NAVIGATION. Acts 10 and 11 William III. 6 Anne, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly ſouth by a bending courſe of about 27 miles in the county of Somerſet: its objects are the import of coals and the export of agricultural products; at Borough chapel it is joined by the Parret river. In 1796, the Briſtol and Taunton canal was propoſed to connect with this navigation at Bridgewater.

271. *Topcliff and Pierſe-Bridge.* In June 1801, it was propoſed to form a canal from the Swale river at Topcliff to Pierſe bridge on the Tees river: the intention of this canal was for ſupplying the north riding of Yorkſhire with Durham coals.

272. TORRIDGE RIVER. The direction of this river is ſouth for 3 miles near the north-weſt coaſt of Devonſhire; its objects are the ſupply of Biddeford with coals, &c. and the export of agricultural products.

273. TOVEY RIVER. The direction of this river (ſometimes called the Towey), is north for about 8½ miles in Caermarthenſhire in South Wales; its object is the ſupply of Caermarthen.

274. TRENT RIVER, *(lower part)*. Act 34 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.S.W. by a bending and crooked courſe of about 116 miles, ſkirting Yorkſhire for a ſhort diſtance, and through the counties of Lincoln and Nottingham, and

and between thole of Leiceſter and Derby; its navigation is of vaſt importance to the country, owing to the many communications which it forms with other rivers or canals; at Keadby it connects with the Stainsforth and Keadby canal; at Stockwith, with the Idle river, and near the ſame place with the Cheſterfield canal; at Torkſey, with the Foſs-dyke canal; at Crankleys, in South-Muſkham, with the Dean river; at Trent-bridge, near Holme-pierpoint, with the Grantham canal, and the Nottingham canal; near Sawley, with the Loughborough navigation, or Soar river, and the Erewaſh canal. In 1789 and 1790, ſeveral acres of land were gained from the wide muddy banks of this river, ſimply by ſtaking down rows of furzen faggots thereon, to check the current, and encourage the abundant depoſit which this river makes, wherever its waters become ſtationary; a circumſtance which proves of immenſe advantage in many inſtances, by the warping of land near this river in floody times, to improve it. The flood which happened in the beginning of 1800, forced a new and much ſtraighter courſe of this river below Gainſborough, and occaſioned the old crooked channel to be deſerted. For making a new-ſide cut, ſometimes called the Trent canal, this company were authoriſed to raiſe 23,000*l.* in 50*l.* ſhares. The profits of the Trent canal are not to exceed 7 *per cent.* In 1760, the Wilden and King's-Bromley, and in 1765, the Ternbridge and Winsford canals were propoſed to join this river at Wilden-ferry, where the Trent and Merſey canal now joins.

275. TRENT RIVER, *(upper part)*. Acts 10 and 11 William III. General direction nearly W.S.W. by a crooked courſe of about 19 miles in Derbyſhire and Staffordſhire; and ſkirting Leiceſterſhire; its objects are the carriage of coals, and the export of ſalt, earthen-ware, ale, and agricultural products: it connects at Swarkſtone with the Derby canal, and has the Trent and Merſey canal running the whole length almoſt by its ſide, and communicating with it at its two extremities. The earl of Uxbridge is the ſole proprietor of this navigation, and all other perſons are reſtricted from erecting or uſing wharfs or warehouſes on its banks without his ſpecial conſent. The bridge over this river at Burton-upon-Trent is ſaid to be the longeſt in England, being 1545 feet long, with 34 arches. In 1793, the Bredon rail-way was propoſed to join this navigation at Weſton Cliff; in 1796, the commercial canal, and in 1797, an extenſion of the Aſhby-de-la-Zouch canal was propoſed to connect herewith at Burton.

276. TRENT AND MERSEY CANAL. Acts 6, 10, 15, 16, 23, 25, two of 37, and 42 Geo. III.—This canal (ſometimes called the Grand Trunk, or the Staffordſhire canal,) has its

general direction about E.S.E. by a very bending courſe of 93 miles in the counties of Cheſter, Stafford, and Derby: it croſſes the grand ridge by a tunnel: its objects are the export of coals, ſalt, pottery-wares, lime, gypſum, Swithland-ſlates, agricultural products, &c. and forming parts of the grand inland communications between Liverpool and Mancheſter, with Hull, Briſtol, and London; at Quinton's-wood in Stoke, it connects with the Newcaſtle-under-line canal: at Great Haywood with the Stafford and Worceſter canal; at Fradley Heath with the detached part of Coventry canal; and at Swarkſtone it croſſes and connects with the Derby canal. From Etruria, a principal branch (ſometimes called the Caldon canal) proceeds by Froghall to Uttoxeter, by a very bending courſe of about 28 miles in length; from this, at Froghall in Kinſley, there is a rail-way branch of $3\frac{1}{4}$ miles to Caldon-low lime-works, alſo from Stanley Moſs in Endon there is a canal branch of about $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles to the town of Leek, and from Shelton, a ſhort cut to Cobridge: from Stoke-upon-Trent there is a rail-way branch to Lane-end; and from Etruria another to Handley-green; from Longport to Dale-hall there is a canal-branch, and the ſame is continued forwards by a rail-way to the potteries at Burſlem; there is a cut 1 mile in length to the Trent river near Burton. Near Lane-delph, and in Harecaſtle there are ſhort cuts or tunnels, extending to the pits or ſeams of coals. From Preſton-brook to Middlewich, at the weſtern end, and from Wilden-Ferry to Horninglow near Burton, at the eaſtern end, the width of the canal at top is 31 feet, at bottom 18, and it is $5\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep; the locks here are 14 feet wide, adapted to river barges of 40 tons burthen; the middle part of the canal, and its branches, are 29 feet broad at top, 16 feet at bottom, and it is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet deep, the locks being only 7 feet wide; the boats are 80 feet long, 6 feet wide, and carry 18 to 20 tons of lading. There are 16 public wharfs on this canal with warehouſes, cranes, weighing-engines, and other neceſſary conveniences at each. Over this canal there are 258 road and foot bridges, and under it three large aqueducts, and 124 leſſer ones and culverts. Through Harecaſtle-hill is a tunnel of 2888 yards in length, and upwards of 70 yards below the hill: this tunnel interſects, and has croſs branches to, ſeveral veins of coals in the hill, and is alſo famous for being the firſt public canal-tunnel conſtructed in England; the height of the arch is 12 feet, and its width 9 feet within-ſide. At Preſton-on-the-hill near Bridgewater's canal is another tunnel of 1241 yards in length; at Barton in Great Budworth is another, 572 yards long; at Saltersford, or Saltersfield, in the ſame pariſh, is another of 350 yards long, and there is a fifth

tunnel

tunnel at Armitage, or Hermitage, of 130 yards in length; the heights of theſe laſt tunnels are 17½ and their width 13½ feet. At Monks-bridge there is an embankment 13 feet high of 1¼ mile in length, and an aqueduct bridge over the Dove river of 23 arches, from 15 to 12 feet wide each. At Alrewas is an aqueduct over the Trent river, with 6 arches of 21 feet ſpan; and near Middlewich is another aqueduct over the Dane, with 3 arches of 20 feet ſpan. The works of this canal, which were begun in July 1766; in April 1773, the line eaſtward of Harecaſtle tunnel was completed, and in May 1777, the whole line was completed and opened: the Leek branch, the extenſion of the Caldon branch to Uttoxeter, and the Cobridge branch have been undertaken ſince the year 1797; the Lane-end, Handley-green, and Burſlem branches were projected in 1802. This company have been authoriſed at different times to raiſe 334,250 *l.* the amount of their ſhares was 200 *l.* each, until 42 Geo. III., when a diviſion of them was made into 100 *l.* ſhares. In 1760 and 1765, the Wilden and Kings-Bromley, and the Tern-bridge and Winsford canals were propoſed through parts of the track now occupied by this canal: in 1793, the Sandbach canal was propoſed to join near that place, and the Bredon rail-way was intended to be connected herewith near Weſton-cliff: in 1796, the commercial canal was propoſed to croſs this canal at Horninglow near Burton, and again near Burſlem; in 1797, an extenſion of the Aſhby-de-la-Zouch canal, to join this at Horninglow was propoſed; the deſign of the two laſt propoſals was, an extenſion of the wide canals for 40 ton boats, and with the ſame view a plan was, in 1797, mentioned of widening this canal and its locks, bridges, &c ſo that wide boats might paſs between Fradley-Heath, and the eaſt end of Hardcaſtle tunnel.

277. Tweed River. This river ſeems to be navigable but about 1 mile from the ſea to Berwick bridge, between Berwick liberty and a detached part of Durham county; it affords a great trade in ſalmon, which are caught in great quantities, and 40,000 kits have been pickled and ſent off from this town in one year; 75 to 80 veſſels are employed in the fiſhery, and trade connected with it.

278. Tyne River. Acts 9 and 10 Henry V., 6 and 7 William III., and 41 Geo. III.—The general direction of this river is nearly W.S.W. by a crooked courſe of about 14 miles between Durham and Northumberland; its great object is the export of coals. A peculiar kind of veſſels is in uſe upon this river for carrying coals from the waggon-roads, or rail-ways, and ſtaiths, to the ſhips: theſe are called keels, and are limited (by 11 and 15 Geo. III.) to 25½ tons of lading, or 8 Newcaſtle

chaldrons of coals. The coals from the numerous coal-mines near this river were formerly delivered to the colliers or coal-ships lying below Newcaſtle bridge by means of the keels, but of late years ſeveral mines have been opened on both ſides of the river, and the rail-ways therefrom are conducted to ſtaiths or ſpouts on the quays, by which means the coals are ſhot at once into the holds of the ſhips. Wooden rail-ways were, ſince about the year 1680, in uſe between the mines and this river, ſome of them of conſiderable length, thoſe to Tanfield-Moor are 10 miles long. In April 1798, an inclined-plane of 864 yards in length, was opened from Benwell, or Bywell collieries; in October 1803, a rail-way from Mr. Temple's Jarrow mine (128 fathoms deep) was opened to the river. No leſs than 35 ſorts of coals, or rather the produce of as many pits, are uſually ſhipped from this river for London, amounting to 700,000 chaldrons annually. On ſome of theſe mines, immenſely large ſteam-engines are employed; in 1763, a new engine was erected at Walker colliery, with a cylinder 74 inches diameter and 40½ feet long, which weighed 6½ tons, and was calculated to lift 307 cwt. of water by each ſtroke of its pump. There is an ancient ſtone bridge of 9 arches over this river, which was greatly damaged by a flood in 1771; in 1801, it was ſuggeſted to remove as many of its piers as would form a 144 feet opening near the ſouth bank, and to conſtruct an iron arch over the ſame, high enough for the keels to paſs without lowering their maſts. The conſervators of this river, in purſuance of the laſt of the above acts, have deepened and improved the ſame and its quays; in 1801, a new dry, or graving-dock, was opened at South Shields, capable of receiving ſhips at neap tides; in 1802, an act paſſed for building a new light-houſe at Tynemouth with reverberating lamps, inſtead of a coal fire blown by bellows, before uſed. In 1798, it was propoſed to make a tunnel or road-arch under the Tyne river from North to South Shields for the paſſage of carriages and paſſengers, and the expenſe was eſtimated at 6,993 *l.* In 1795, the Newcaſtle and Carliſle canal was propoſed to join this river near Newcaſtle; in 1796, the Newcaſtle and Haydon bridge, and in or before 1801, the Newcaſtle and Maryport were alſo propoſed. In 1797, and again in 1802, the Durham and Cheſter-le-Street canal was propoſed to join this river near Gateſhead; and in 1803, the Tyne and Beamiſh canal was propoſed through part of nearly the ſame tract.

279. *Tyne and Beamiſh Canal.* In 1803, it was propoſed to make a canal from the Tyne river near Gateſhead, through Gateſhead, Wickham, Lameſly, and Birtly townſhips, to Beamiſh iron-works and coal-mines.

280. ULVER-

280. ULVERSTONE CANAL. Act 33 Geo. III. The direction of this ſhort but large canal, is nearly N.W. for 1½ mile in Lancaſhire; its object is to admit ſhips to Ulverſtone town. The canal is 65 feet wide at top, 30 feet at bottom, and 15 feet deep; the lock is 112 feet long; at the loweſt neap tides there is a depth of 9 feet water at the gates, and at ſpring tides of 20 feet; a public ſwing-bridge is built at Hammerſide. It was completed about July 1797; the company were authoriſed to raiſe 7,000 *l.* the amount of their ſhares being 50 *l.* each.

281. *Uppingham Canal.* In 1793, it was propoſed to make a canal from the town of Uppingham in Rutlandſhire, to connect with the Leiceſterſhire and Northamptonſhire Union canal, and proviſion is made in its act (33 Geo. III.) for ſuch junctions.

282. USKE RIVER. The direction of this river is nearly N. for about 4 miles in the county of Monmouth; its objects are the export of coals, iron, &c. and the trade of Newport; at Pill-Gwnelly it connects with the Monmouthſhire canal, and with the Sirhowy tram-road.

283. *Wakefield and Hullet.* In September 1805 notices were given for a rail-way from the Calder and Hebble navigation at Bottom boat in Wakefield, to Hullet-hall collieries, with branches to Birſtal and Smithic bridge in the weſt riding of Yorkſhire.

284. WARWICK AND BIRMINGHAM CANAL. Acts 33 and 36 of Geo. III. General direction nearly N.W. for 25 miles in the counties of Warwick and Worceſter; it croſſes the grand ridge without a tunnel; its objects are the ſupply of Warwick with coals, &c. and forming part of the moſt direct water communication between Birmingham and London; at Kingſwood in Rowington, this canal is joined by a branch from the Stratford canal. At Haſeley there is a tunnel of 300 yards in length; at Henwood wharf there is an aqueduct over the Blythe river; near Flint Green another over the Cole river; and near its termination at Digbeth another over the Rea river. In May 1796, the northern end of the canal for nearly 9 miles to Henwood aqueduct was completed and opened; and, on the 19th of December 1799, the whole line was completed and opened. This company was authoriſed to raiſe 180,000 *l.*, the amount of their ſhares is 100 *l.* each.

285. WARWICK AND NAPTON. Act 34 and 36 Geo. III. The general direction of this canal, (at firſt called the Warwick and Braunſton,) is nearly Eaſt for about 15 miles in the county of Warwick; it terminates near to the grand ridge, on its Weſt ſide: its main object is, the opening of the moſt direct

direct line between Birmingham and London. This canal was completed on the 19th of December 1799. The company were authorised to raise 130,000 *l.*; the amount of each share being 100 *l.* but by the last act, the holders of the original 1000 shares, were authorised to contribute any further sum, and to be entitled to a proportionate dividend, with original shares, on such addition.

286. Waveney River. The general direction of this river is nearly S.W. by a bending course of about 23 miles between the counties of Suffolk and Norfolk: its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and export of agricultural products.

287. Wear River. Act 34 Geo. II. General direction nearly S.W. for about 10 miles in the county of Durham; its principal object is the export of coals. There is a rail-way of 7 miles in length from this river to Eaton-Main colliery, and a great number of others of considerable lengths, for conveying coals to the staiths and spouts where barges and ships are loaded with them. Eighteen different sorts of coals, or rather the produce of so many different pits, are usually shipped from this river for the London market, amounting in the whole to 195,000 chaldrons annually. In 1797, and again in 1802, the Durham and Chester-le-Street canal was proposed to join this river near Chester, and thence extend the navigation to Durham.

288. Weaver River. Act 7 Geo. I. and 34 Geo. II. General direction nearly S.E. by a crooked course of 20 miles in Cheshire; its objects are the import of coals and Cumberland red iron-ore, and the export of salt and agricultural products. The trustees for this navigation were authorised to borrow money at 5 *per cent.* interest, and 1 *per cent.* for the risk; in 1759, the debt amounted to 20,200 *l.*, borrowed at 5 and 4½ *per cent.*: this debt has long ago been paid off; and, there being no private interest in the concern, to the amount of 3000 *l.* has been paid in some years, to the county treasurer of Cheshire, to be laid out in amending and repairing the public bridges, and in the repair of high-ways leading to the salt-works, agreeable to the directions of the first act. The salt-mines at Northwich are 300 feet deep. In 1804, it was in contemplation to make a side-cut to this river, from near Frodsham, into the Mersey at Weston or Western point, for avoiding the bar or shoal at the mouth of this river.

289. Welland River. Act 34 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. for about 37 miles in the county of Lincoln and skirting that of Northampton; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c.; the export of Ketton free-stone, Collyweston white slates, agricultural products, &c.; near Crow-

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land it connects with Catwater, a branch of the Nen river. In 1721, Mr. Nathaniel Kinderly recommended the cutting of a new channel, from near the mouth of Glen river to Wyberton near Boſton, by which the out-fall of this river would be into the channel of the Witham river, inſtead of Foſſdike waſh. The ſubſequent contractions of the Welland river, by embankments near its mouth, ſomewhat improved the navigation to Spalding, and delayed until the year 1794 the adoption of Mr. Kinderley's propoſed cut: in future the commencement of this navigation is to be in the tide-way of the Witham river at Wyberton roads, and it terminates at Stamford bridge. Commiſſioners are appointed for ſetting out, and employing proper perſons to execute the new cut, ſluices, locks, &c. and are to cleanſe the channel of the Welland for ſome diſtance above the new cut, and erect a ſufficient dam acroſs the river below the entrance of the ſame at Shepherd's hole, to ſtop the tide waters and turn the land waters through the new cut. In 1797, it was ſtated that 10,000 *l.* had been ſubſcribed for carrying the above new cut and improvements into effect. Truſtees are appointed in the above act, for receiving the tolls and maintaining the works when completed by the commiſſioners.

290. *Welſhpool and Leominſter.* About the year 1794, a canal was propoſed from the Montgomery canal and Severn river near Welſhpool, to the Leominſter canal at Woferton; paſſing Biſhop's-Caſtle and Ludlow.

291. Wey River. The general direction of this river is nearly S.S.W. for 20$\frac{3}{4}$ miles in the county of Surrey; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c, and the export of chalk and agricultural products; at Weſtley near Weybridge, it is joined by the Baſingſtoke canal. From Guilford bridge to Godalmin is a canal 5$\frac{1}{4}$ miles, with a riſe of 32$\frac{1}{2}$ feet: which is ſupplied by a feeder from the Wey at Godalmin. In 1791, and again in 1803, this navigation was propoſed to be joined near Godalmin by a canal from the Itching river (ſee Portſmouth and Croydon). In 1800, the Grand Surrey was propoſed to be extended to this river near Weſtley; and in 1802, a branch from the Grand Junction canal was intended to connect with this river by means of the Thames at Ham-Haw.

292. Wharfe River. The general direction of this river is nearly N.W. for about 9 miles between Ainſty Liberty and the Weſt Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the carriage of coals, free-ſtone, &c. and the export of agricultural productions.

293. Whitehaven Brook. This brook is navigable but a very ſhort diſtance, in a S.E. direction at its mouth, which

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is wide, conſtituting the harbour of Whitehaven in Cumberland: its chief object is the export of coals, lime, and freeſtone. This harbour, ſituate on the Iriſh ſea, has had ſeveral acts paſſed for its improvement, *viz.* 7 and 10 Anne, 13 Geo. II., 1, 2, 28, 32, and 45 Geo. III. and in September (1805) notices were given for a further application to parliament. There are ſeveral rail-ways from this harbour to the famous coal-mines in its vicinity. On the 4th of Auguſt 1738, the firſt rail or waggon-way was opened at this place, leading to Harrichwaite and Woodhouſe collieries. On the 9th of Auguſt, 1803, the rail-way, 700 yards in length, paſſing over Brantty-arch, or Road-bridge, to Howgil and Whingill coal mines, was opened: and in the ſame year thoſe to Brackenthwaite mine were opened.

294. *Wibſey and Dewſbury.* In 1802, a rail-way was propoſed from the Calder and Hebble navigation at Ravensbridge in Dewſbury, to Low-moor iron-works in Wibſey, about 7 miles in length.

295. WILTS AND BERKS CANAL. Acts 35 and 41 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. by a bending courſe of about 52 miles in the counties of Wilts and Berks: it croſſes the grand ridge at the foot of the chalk-hills without any tunnel: its objects are the import of coals from both its extremities, the export of farming products, &c. On the Calne branch there is a ſhort tunnel, under the road at Cuningham park; and a principal aqueduct-bridge over Broadtown brook near Wotton-Baſſet. The company have been authoriſed to raiſe 311,900*l.* the amount of ſhares being 100*l.* each. In Auguſt 1799; the weſtern end of the line was completed and filled, and on the 1ſt May 1801, by the completion of the Kennet and Avon to Semington, the junction was formed, and 22 miles of the line to the aqueduct near Wotton-Baſſet, with the Calne and Chippenham branches, have ſince been uſed, principally in bringing in Somerſetſhire coals. In September 1800, two branches of the Thames and Severn canal, by Faringdon and Highworth, were propoſed to join this canal at Uffington and Shrivenham. In 1803, the Aylesbury branch of the Grand Junction canal was propoſed to connect with this canal by means of the Iſis river at Abingdon.

296. *Winſton and Stockton.* In 1768, engineers ſurveyed the line for a canal from the Tees at Stockton; paſſing Hartburn, Cothams-ſtob, Moor-houſe, Oak-tree, Maidendale, Banktop, Darlington, Cockerton, Lower-Walworth, Legg's-croſs, Killerby, and Staindrop, to Winſton: with a branch 1¼ mile from Lower-Walworth to the Tees at Pierſebridge; another from Darlington, 3 miles to Croft-bridge on the Tees; and another

another from Cotham-ſtob, 2 miles to the Tees at Yarm. The export of coals, lime, and lead, was the object of this propoſed canal.

297. WISBEACH CANAL. Act 34 Geo. III. Direction nearly S. E. for 6 miles in the counties of Cambridge and Norfolk; its object is a communication between Wiſbeach and Lynn, inſtead of an old part of the Nen river near it, which is almoſt grown up. This company were authoriſed to raiſe 20,000 *l.* the amount of each ſhare being 105 *l.*

298. WITHAM (*old*) RIVER. Act Geo. II. General direction nearly N.W. for about 41 miles in the county of Lincoln; its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c., the export of farming products, and forming part of the inland communication between Lynn and Hull, Liverpool, Manchester, &c. Near Tatterſhall it is joined by the Horncaſtle navigation; at Chapel-hill by the Sleaford navigation; and at Wyberton roads the new outfall and navigation of the Welland river are to join this river. This river below Boſton, about 4 miles, was anciently ſo deep, and was ſo much frequented by ſhips, that in the 6th year of king John, when the merchants of London paid only 836 *l.* as a tax on their lands and goods, Boſton contributed 780 *l.* A gradual decay and filling up of the channel and harbour took place to ſuch a degree, that when, in 1761, Meſſrs. John Grundy, Langley Edwards, and John Smeaton examined the ſtate of this navigation, and of the drainage of the adjoining fens, through which this river is embanked on both ſides through nearly its whole length, owing to the long neglect of the banks, which ſhould have confined the returning tide and the land-waters, ſo as to ſcour the channel, they reported that 30 ton barges could then ſcarcely reach Boſton, while the navigation above that town was entirely loſt, and the ancient channel was in ſeveral places entirely grown up and abandoned by the water in its ordinary ſtate. Mr. Smeaton then recommended the erection of a ſea-ſluice upon this river below Boſton, the ſill thereof as low as low-water, with 3 openings, amounting to 50 feet wide; theſe to be furniſhed with doors pointing to ſea-ward, and draw-gates behind them gauged, or having their tops, two feet below the ſurface of the fens, for always retaining a proper quantity of water in the river in dry ſeaſons; alſo a ſea-lock at the ſame place for the navigation, furniſhed with three pair of gates, two of them pointing to the land, and one to the ſea: the ſtraightening, enlarging, and deepening of the river above Boſton to 80 feet at top, 50 at bottom, and 10 feet deep, were recommended, and the erection of three pound-locks, furniſhed with flood-gates or opening-weirs adjoining, below Lincoln, and one other ſuch lock above.

The

The eſtimate for ſuch of theſe works as related to draining, was 38,000*l.*, and for the navigation works 7,370*l.* When Mr. Smeaton was afterwards conſulted in the year 1782, he objected to a navigation lock which had been in the interim erected below Lincoln town, and recommended the cutting off the communication between Foſſdyke canal and Brayford meer, by a pound-lock with gates pointing to the canal, and deepen this river through and above Lincoln bridge, and to remove Brayford head, ſo as to lower the water in Brayford meer: the principal wharfs appear to have been ſince made, and the trade of Lincoln is now carried on upon this meer or water. By the acts of 32 Geo. III. for Horncaſtle and Sleaford navigation, thoſe companies were required to contribute equally with this company in the expenſes of deepening and improving this river through Lincoln high-bridge, and thence to the Foſſdyke canal, in the next 7 years; in conſequence of which, goods paſſing on this river to or from the Horncaſtle or Sleaford navigations, are to pay only half the accuſtomed rates on this river. In 1803, it was in contemplation to further improve the navigation of this river below Lincoln.

299. WORCESTER AND BIRMINGHAM CANAL. Acts 31, 38, and 44 Geo. III. General direction nearly N.E. for 29 miles in the counties of Worceſter and Warwick; it croſſes the grand ridge by a tunnel: its objects are the export of coals, and a more direct communication between Birmingham and the Severn river: at Selly Oak it is joined by the Dudley canal, and at Kings-Norton by the Stratford canal. The width of the canal at top is 42 feet, and the depth is 6 feet; the locks are 80 feet long and 15 feet wide; the boats are of 80 tons burthen. There are 4 or 5 principal, and ſeveral ſmaller culverts: the principal tunnel at Weſt-heath is 2700 yards long, 18 feet high, and 18½ feet wide within the arch, the depth of water is 7½ feet; at Tardebig is another of 500 yards in length; at Shortwood is another of 400 yards in length; at Oddingley one of 120 yards; and at Edgbaſton another of 110 yards in length: four of theſe tunnels are upon the ſummit-pound. The ſcheme of this canal was laid, and a bill was brought into parliament in 1790, but the oppoſition of intereſts, and natural difficulties of this vaſt undertaking then proved fatal to it. In May 1796, the eaſtern end of this canal, as far as the Stratford canal at Kings-Norton, was completed. The arching of the Weſt-heath tunnel was begun on the 28th of July 1794, the whole of it was turned by the 25th of February 1797, (1780 yards of it having been completed in the year 1796) and in March 1797, the navigation was extended through it to Hopwood wharf, and in the following year, the ſame was extended

extended to the weſtern end of the ſummit-pound at Tardebig. The company were authoriſed by their two firſt acts to raiſe 399,929*l.* 1*s.* 1½*d.*: their whole ſhares being made hereby, of the odd value of 138*l.* 17*s.* 9*d.* each: theſe were ſaid to be depreciated in value almoſt to nothing; but in 1802, they had riſen to 40*l.* each. The laſt act was for raiſing a further ſum of money for completing the very difficult part of the line, and ſupplying lockage-water, by ſteam-engines to pump it up from the Severn, by reſervoirs, &c. which yet remains to be accompliſhed. About the year 1793, a branch was propoſed from this canal near Hanbury-hall to the Droitwich canal at that town.

300. WYE RIVER. The general direction of this rapid and romantic river is nearly N.W. by a very bending and crooked courſe of about 85 miles in the counties of Monmouth and Hereford, and Brecknock, in South Wales, and ſkirting the county of Glouceſter; its objects are the carriage of coals, and the export of agricultural products; at Hereford it is approached very near, if not joined, by the Hereford and Glouceſter canal. In 1802, the Dean-Foreſt rail-way was propoſed to join this river at Engliſh-Bichnor, we believe; in the ſame year notices were given, for an intended rail-way from this river at Hereford, to join the ſame again oppoſite to Lydbrook; and in March 1805, another rail-way was propoſed from this river to the Monmouthſhire canal.

301. WYRLEY AND ESSINGTON CANAL. Acts 32 and 24 Geo. III. General direction nearly S.W. by a very crooked courſe of 23 miles in the county of Staffordſhire: it terminates at its weſtern end near, or upon the grand ridge: its object is the export of coals, iron, and lime, which abound in its courſe. There is a branch of 5½ miles to Hay-head lime-works; another of 2½ miles to Lord's-Hay coal-pits; another of near 4 miles at Wyrley-bank collieries, with a branch from this laſt near 1 mile to Eſſington new collieries; there is alſo a branch ½ a mile to near Walſall town, which terminates within ½ a mile of the branch of the old Birmingham thereto. This canal is 28 feet wide at top, 16 at bottom, and 4½ feet deep. The company were authoriſed to raiſe 160,000*l.* the firſt 35,000*l.* in 125*l.* ſhares; on the extenſion of the canal in 1794, the company were required to purchaſe the ſhares of certain diſcontented proprietors: the new ſhares are 100*l.* each.

302. YARE RIVER. The direction of this river is nearly W. by a bending courſe of about 22 miles in the county of Norfolk, its objects are the import of coals, deals, &c. and the export of agricultural products: at Yarmouth this river is joined by the Thryn river, and at Burgh by Waveney river. In 1785, and in 1802,

1802, the London, Lynn, and Norwich, or North London canal, was propoſed to join this river at Norwich.

303. YORE RIVER. Act 7 Geo. III.—This river, ſometimes called the Ure-river, has nearly a N.W. direction for about 8½ miles in the weſt, and ſkirting the North Riding of Yorkſhire; its objects are the ſupply of Borough bridge and Ripon, and the export of agricultural products: at Myton it is joined by the Swale river.

INSURANCE. The ſecurity of poſſeſſion, and the power of averting a total loſs by prudent precaution is of great importance in domeſtic as well as in foreign commerce. The inſurances which under this head it is moſt neceſſary to conſider are thoſe againſt fire, and on lives.

FIRE. By this contract the inſurer, in conſideration of a certain premium received by him, either in a groſs ſum, or by annual payments, undertakes to indemnify the inſured againſt all loſs or damage which he may ſuſtain in his houſes or other buildings, goods and merchandize, by fire, during a limited term. The period at which this practice was introduced in England is not aſcertained; but it certainly has been in uſe conſiderably more than a century.

BENEFITS. As every public undertaking has ſome obvious defects, it is obſerved with reſpect to inſurance againſt fires, that many wiſe and intelligent perſons have doubted whether, in a general, and national point of view, the benefits reſulting from it are not more than counterbalanced by the miſchiefs it occaſions. Not to mention the careleſſneſs and inattention which ſecurity naturally creates; every perſon who has a concern in any of the fire-offices, or who has attended the courts at Weſtminiſter for any length of time, muſt own, that inſurance has been the original cauſe of many fires in London, with all their train of miſchievous conſequences. But on the other hand, ſerjeant Marſhall obſerves, the advocates for this ſpecies of inſurance, though they admit it to have been ſometimes the cauſe of intentional fires; inſiſt, that, even as a national concern, the benefits vaſtly outweigh the miſchiefs which proceed from it. And when we recollect the precautions uſed by the different inſurance companies, to prevent the ſpreading of conflagration by providing a number of fire-engines, which are kept in conſtant repair, and fit for immediate uſe, not only in all parts of the metropolis, but in every other conſiderable town in the kingdom; by keeping in conſtant pay, a number of engineers and firemen, expert in extinguiſhing fires, and porters for the removal of goods; by employing a number of theſe in patrolling the ſtreet at all hours of the night, in conſtant readineſs to fly to the ſpot from whence any alarm of fire may proceed;

ceed. When we recollect that the courage, promptitude, and addreſs of theſe people often ſtop the progreſs of the moſt dangerous fires, and thereby reſcue many valuable lives, and immenſe property from deſtruction. When theſe benefits are fairly conſidered, it is impoſſible to deny that they greatly outweigh all the diſadvantages that can be put in the oppoſite ſcale. To this enumeration of benefits may be added the ſecurity againſt the extenſion of conflagration afforded by the building act, which provides for the erection of party walls, and other regulations, and the great eaſe and confidence derived from experienced ſafety. The effect too of general inſurance has been not only ſecurity, but a great reduction of rates. At firſt the premiums, without any tax, were conſiderably higher than they are now, when one half of the ſum paid by the inſurer, is a ſtamp duty.

Property. It is held that the perſon who inſures muſt have an intereſt in the thing inſured, eſpecially as a ſtatute, 14 Geo. III. c. 48, prohibits all inſurances without intereſt, "*upon any event or events whatſoever.*" It often happens that no office will inſure to the full amount required by a particular perſon, who has a large property to inſure; and in ſuch caſe, the party can only cover his whole intereſt, by ſeveral inſurances made at different offices. But then it is proper, and by the regulations of the inſurance offices it is often expreſsly required, that each ſhould have notice of every inſurance thus made on the ſame effects; for otherwiſe great frauds might be practiſed by inſuring the ſame property to its full value, at ſeveral different offices at the ſame time.

Risk. By the terms of the uſual policy, the inſurers undertake to pay, make good, and ſatisfy to the inſured all loſs or damage, which may happen by fire, during the time ſpecified in the policy, to the houſes or other buildings, furniture, or merchandize inſured, but in general there is an exception againſt military or uſurped power, and in ſome policies, againſt civil commotion. On the latter ſubject, it was decided in the caſe of Mr. Langdale the diſtiller, that the riots in 1780 were included in the term civil commotion, and he could not recover againſt the office; but he did recover in an action againſt the hundred. And where, in a ſimilar caſe, the office paid the amount inſured, they were allowed to recover againſt the hundred. Fifteen days are generally allowed, after the time ſpecified in the policy, for payment of the premium for the following term. In a court of law it has been decided, that a caſualty, within theſe fifteen days, is not provided againſt, unleſs the inſurance has been previouſly paid; but ſeveral offices imme-

diately gave public notice that they would not take advantage of that deciſion.

Proof of Loss. The form of the policy is nearly the ſame in all the offices. The principal difference between them conſiſts in the terms of certain *propoſals*, as they are called, to which the policies refer, as making part of the contract. One principal article, which is found in the propoſals of ſeveral of the offices imports, that perſons inſured, ſuſtaining any loſs or damage by fire, are forthwith to give notice thereof at the office, and as ſoon as poſſible afterwards, deliver in as particular an account of their loſs and damage, as the nature of the caſe will admit of; and make proof of the ſame by their oath or affirmation, according to the form practiſed in the ſaid office; and by their books of accounts, or other proper vouchers, as ſhall be reaſonably required; and procure a certificate under the hands of the miniſter and churchwardens, together with ſome other reputable inhabitants of the pariſh, not concerned in ſuch loſs, importing, that they are well acquainted with the character and circumſtances of the perſon or perſons inſured, and do know, or verily believe, that he, ſhe, or they, really, and by misfortune, without any fraud or evil practice, have ſuſtained by ſuch fire, loſs and damage, to the value therein mentioned: but, till ſuch affidavit and certificate of loſs ſhall be produced, the loſs money ſhall not be payable. And, if there appear any fraud or falſe ſwearing, ſuch ſufferers ſhall be excluded all benefit of their policies. In the policies of theſe offices, the inſurers undertake to pay the loſs, not exceeding the ſum inſured, "*according to the exact tenor of their printed propoſals*," deſcribing their propoſals by their reſpective dates. Nothing can be more reaſonable, in a caſe where there is ſo great temptation to fraud, than to require a teſtimonial from perſons in public ſituations in the pariſh where a fire has happened, who have opportunities of informing themſelves as to the characters of the inſured, and the fairneſs of their claims; and who are not likely to connive at any fraud. "It is a duty," ſays Mr. Juſtice Lawrence, "that the office owes to the public, as well as to themſelves, to take every precaution to protect themſelves againſt fraud; and unleſs ſome ſuch check as the preſent were interpoſed, the office would be holding out a premium to wicked men to ſet fire to their own houſes."

Offices. The buſineſs of inſurance againſt fire, is intirely carried on in offices eſtabliſhed for that purpoſe. Their care in providing engines and firemen, the known honour of the governors and directors, and the general reſpectibility of the eſtabliſhments, have deſtroyed all poſſibility of competition to be attempted

attempted by individuals. Some offices are eſtabliſhed in the large towns and cities of the kingdom, independent of thoſe in the metropolis; but they are few in number, and their operations merely local, while the offices in London, by means of agents duly authoriſed, and properly ſtationed, extend their beneficial operations to all parts of the realm. Of the chief of theſe a ſhort account is ſubjoined.

HAND IN HAND. The Hand in Hand is the oldeſt eſtabliſhment for inſurance againſt fire. The office was erected in the year 1696, by about one hundred perſons, who, mutually agreeing to inſure each others' houſes from loſs by fire, by an amicable contribution, entered into a deed of ſettlement for that purpoſe; which being ſigned by every perſon deſirous of becoming a member, he or ſhe is admitted into the joint contribution ſhip, and becomes a proportionate ſharer in profit and loſs. This deed of ſettlement was inrolled in chancery, January 24, 1698. The affairs of this community are managed by twenty-four directors, who ſerve gratis; which, together with their frugal and diſintereſted management, the conſiderable fund aforeſaid, and a call of ten ſhillings *per cent.* on brick, and twenty on wooden buildings (which is the moſt that each contributor is obliged to pay, in caſe ſo great a loſs ſhould happen as to require the ſame, which hitherto has not happened, and probably never will) on any extraordinary event; a better ſecurity cannot well be deviſed. And as this office is calculated for the general good of the members, they have likewiſe the advantage ſeparately to examine the deed of ſettlement, and all orders and proceedings, as well of the general courts, as thoſe of the court of directors. This company keep in their ſervice thirty firemen, who are uniformly cloathed, and have each a badge.

SUN. This office was projected by John Povey, about the year 1706, for inſuring merchandize and houſehold goods, as well as houſes, from fire, which, till then, was never done. Povey, having for ſome time carried on his project with ſucceſs, diſpoſed of it to certain purchaſers; who, by a deed of ſettlement of the 7th of April, 1710, erected themſelves into a ſociety by the name of the *Sun Fire Office, for inſuring houſes, goods, wares, and merchandizes from loſs and damage by fire.* This ſociety, not confining themſelves to the bills of mortality only, extended their inſurance to all parts of the iſland, and raiſed a ſum of forty eight thouſand pounds for the ſafety of the inſured. The undertaking has always been eminently proſperous; the office is in Craig's Court Charing Croſs, and its management is intruſted to twenty-two directors, of whom one is chairman.

UNION. This office was erected in 1714, by a conſiderable number of perſons, who mutually agreeing to inſure one ano-

thers goods and merchandize (not houſes) from loſs by fire, by an amicable contribution, entered, February 16, 1715, into a deed of ſettlement for that purpoſe, which, being ſigned by every perſon deſirous of becoming a member, he is thereby admitted into the joint contributionſhip, and becomes a proportional ſharer in profit and loſs. The deed was inrolled in chancery, July 8, 1715. Their affairs are managed by twenty-four directors. Their office is at No. 81 Cornhill.

WESTMINSTER. The Weſtminſter Fire Office was eſtabliſhed by deed, dated 13th of February 1717, and inrolled in chancery. Its objects are the ſame with thoſe of the Hand in Hand; this office is in Bedford Street Covent Garden, and the directors, of whom one half annually retire, are eighteen. They have beſide, a ſurveyor regularly employed.

ROYAL EXCHANGE. This ſociety, purſuant to an act of parliament of the ſixth George. I. June 22, 1720, was incorporated by letters patent, by the name of the *Royal Exchange Aſſurance, for aſſuring of ſhips, goods and merchandize at ſea, or going to ſea, and for lending money on bottomry.* By which name they are to have perpetual ſucceſſion, (yet ſubject to redemption by parliament) with a power to ſue, and be ſued in courts of record, or elſewhere; to have a common ſeal; to purchaſe lands, &c. in mortmain, to the amount of 1000 *l. per annum*, and to grant, alien or demiſe, the ſame at pleaſure. In conſideration of theſe advantages, the corporation was to advance to the king 300,000*l.* without intereſt for thirty-one years. Towards raiſing this ſum, and paying all juſt demands to be made on their policies, the company were empowered to raiſe a ſum not exceeding 1,500,000 to be called the ſtock of the corporation; and in caſe the government ſhould think fit to repay the aforeſaid ſum of 300,000*l.* within, or at the expiration of the term above mentioned; then, on three years notice given by parliament in the London Gazette, and at the Royal Exchange, the corporation to ceaſe. By a ſecond charter, this corporation is empowered not only to inſure houſes, goods, ſhips, &c. from fire, but likewiſe to aſſure lives. Their offices are up ſtairs in the Royal Exchange London, and in Pall Mall; they have a governor, ſub, and deputy governor, twenty-four directors, and proper officers.

LONDON. This ſociety, purſuant to an act of parliament of the ſixth George I. was incorporated by letters patent, June 22, 1720, by the name of the *London Aſſurance, for aſſuring of ſhips, goods, and merchandizes at ſea, or going to ſea; and for lending money upon bottomry.* This charter was grounded on a ſimilar conſideration, the advance of 300,000*l.* and ſimilar in extent, and ſubject to redemption on the ſame terms, with that

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of the Royal Exchange Company. This company had alſo a ſecond charter, dated 29th April, Anno 1721, enabling them to aſſure lives. They are under a direction ſimilar to that of the Royal Exchange Company.

Theſe two laſt mentioned ſocieties, from the critical time when they were projected, were among the objects of ſpeculation in the famous year of deluſion (1720) generally called the South Sea Year. At that time the ſubſcriptions to the Royal Exchange Company, of 100*l.* roſe to 250*l.* and ſhares in the London, on which 12*l.* 10*s.* had been depoſited, roſe to 175*l.* As theſe projects, however, had a ſolid baſis, thoſe who purchaſed ſhares, although they might pay too dearly for them, were not left, like the adventurers in ſo many other bubbles, to lament a total loſs.

Phœnix. The fire offices already mentioned, with one or two others, whoſe concerns are very limited, and which were diſcontinued, tranſacted all the buſineſs in that way till 1782, when a new eſtabliſhment was formed, and aſſumed the name of the Phœnix. This ſociety under the management of nineteen directors, was ſpeedily and eminently proſperous. As one of its claims to favour was the reduction of premium, the example it ſet was ſpeedily followed by other offices, and thus the public gained the uſual advantage which reſults from competition, that of obtaining a given benefit at ſmaller expenſe than before. The offices are in Lombard-ſtreet, and at Charing-Croſs.

British. In 1798, a ſociety was eſtabliſhed under this title, for inſuring houſes, goods, and ſhips in harbour againſt fire. Its offices are in the Strand and Cornhill.

Globe. In 1799, the king was empowered to give a charter to a new company, to be incorporated under the form of *the Globe Inſurance Company*, who propoſed to make inſurances on lives, and againſt loſs by fire; to buy or ſell annuities for lives, or on ſurvivorſhip; to grant ſums payable at future periods, either at home or abroad; to receive depoſits; to act as treaſurer for benefit ſocieties and other benevolent inſtitutions; to make proviſion for clergymen and their widows and children; and to receive depoſits from members of the induſtrious claſſes of ſociety and others, payable at a period of not leſs than ſix months. This company conſiſts of near nine hundred proprietors; and their capital is one million. The great extent of this undertaking, and ſome powers claimed by the projectors, were the ſubject of much controverſy. The management is at preſent confided to a chairman and deputy chairman, and twenty-three directors, but general meetings of the proprietors are held on certain occaſions, and their whole capital is actually paid in and inveſted.

IMPERIAL. This company was formed in 1803. Its objects are merely those of insuring buildings, goods, and ships in harbour. It is under the management of twenty-one directors, and the proprietors stand engaged to advance, when necessary, a capital of 1,200,000 *l.* Their offices are in Sun Court Cornhill, and St. James's Street.

ALBION. A company under this name was formed in 1805, including the insurance of lives with that against all other accidents by fire. Its office is in Change Alley Cornhill.

INSURABLE PROPERTY. To display at one view the importance of these institutions, it is proper to subjoin the following most curious and interesting paper.

Estimate of the property in Great Britain and Ireland, insurable from loss by fire; by Sir Frederick Morton Eden, Bart.

			£	s	£
HOUSES in London	100,000	average net rent	30		3,000,000
in other towns in England, &c.	570,000	-	10		5,700,000
in the country of England and Wales	200,000		5		1,000,000
	600,000		2		1,200,000
	400,000		1	10	600,000
	1,870,000				11,500,000

Value at a little above 17 year's purchase	200,000,000	
Machinery, such as steam engines, spinning works, &c.	40,000,000	
Houses and *Machinery* in Scotland	30,000,000	
		270,000,000
Furniture in houses, &c. taken at half the value of the houses	135,000,000	

Household stock, not considered as furniture, viz.

	£
Clothes - -	15,550,000
Plate - -	10,000,000
Jewels and trinkets,	5,000,000
Clocks and watches	2,000,000
Books - -	5,000,000

Wine

	£
Wine, Spirits, &c.	2,000,000
Houſehold linen -	3,000,000
Horſes and Carriages	2,000,000
Other articles -	5,450,000
Total in England and Wales	50,000,000
The ſame articles in Scotland	5,000,000
	55,000,000

Value of furniture and houſehold ſtock ——— 190,000,000

AGRICULTURAL STOCK, the annual crop being eſtimated at

8,000,000 quarters of wheat at 40 *s.*	16,000,000
5,000,000 ——— barley and rye 24 *s.* - - -	6,000,000
12,000,000 ——— oats and beans 16 *s.* 8*d.* - -	10,000,000
hay and ſtraw	20,000,000
Value of the crop (excluſive of peas, rape and hops) - -	52,000,000
Deducting for preſent conſumption, remains inſurable value - - -	32,500,000

BRITISH MANUFACTURES, claſſed as follows:

Woollen goods, annual produce, 19 millions, annual export 8 millions. Stock on hand for home conſumption - - -	11,000,000
Cotton goods, produce 10 millions: ſtock for home conſumption -	6,000,000
Flaxen goods - ditto - -	2,000,000
Hempen goods - ditto - -	2,000,000
Silk goods - ditto - -	3,000,000
Leather, in ſhoes, boots, ſadlery, harneſs, military acoutrements, carriages, &c. - - -	12,000,000
Glaſs, (plate glaſs very much improved of late) - -	2,000,000
Porcelain, and pottery (much improved in the laſt 20 years) -	2,000,000
Paper, (increaſed in price and quantity)	1,500,000
Hardware, made at Birmingham, Sheffield, &c. probably above -	6,000,000

	£	
Beer, annual conſumption 200,000,000 gallons at 1 *s.* - - -	10,000,000	
Spirits, ann. conſumption 10,000,000 gallons at 8 *s.* - - -	4,000,000	
Soap, reckoning for 2,260,802 families, at 3 ½ *d.* per week, above -	1,500,000	
Salt, 46,000 tons of 40 buſhels each (without making any allowance for ſmuggled ſalt) - - -	1,000,000	
Candles, wax and tallow, above	2,000,000	
White lead and other colours for painters and dyers, turpentine caſks, and vats for liquors, drugs, hats, ſtraw work, ſnuff, horn, books, furniture, muſical inſtruments, watches, jewellery, coaches and other carriages, printing apparatus, ſalted beef, pork, butter, fiſh, &c. probably at leaſt - -	10,000,000	
Annual amount of manufactures for home conſumption - -	76,000,000	
Britiſh manufactures for exportation, value in 1800, almoſt -	40,000,000	
Total of Britiſh manufactures -	116,000,000	
Foreign merchandize; the imports of 1800 were above - - -	55,000,000	
	171,000,000	
Of Britiſh and foreign merchandize, beſides what remains in the Eaſt India Company's warehouſes uninſured, there may be ſtated, as on hand, and therefore inſurable - -		39,000,000
Shipping, belonging to Great Britain and Ireland, valued at -	20,000,000	
Belonging to the colonies -	2,000,000	
Veſſels on the ſtocks - -	1,000,000	
	23,000,000	
Of theſe at leaſt one fourth may be eſtimated as ſtock in hand in Britiſh ports and inſurable from fire		5,750,000
Total inſurable property in Great Britain		537,250,000

Property

	£
Property of every kind, insurable in Ireland, estimated at - - - -	53,725,000
Total property in the United kingdom, insurable from loss by fire - - -	590,975,000

Besides the above there are stocks of coal, alum, and other minerals, boats and other fresh water craft, arsenals, offices and other public buildings, of the value of which no estimate can be made.

Lives. The insurance of a life is a contract whereby the insurer, in consideration of a certain premium, either in a gross sum, or by annual payments, undertakes to pay the person for whose benefit the insurance is made, a stipulated sum of money, or an annuity equivalent, upon the death of a person whose life is insured; *whenever it shall happen*, if the insurance be for the whole life, or *in case it shall happen within a certain period*, if the insurance be for a limited time. The precarious dependence of a numerous family upon the life of a single person, naturally suggests the idea of seeking some protection against a calamity, which sooner or later must befal them; and this, probably, occasioned insurances upon lives, as an expedient by which a pecuniary indemnity, at least, might be secured to the sufferers, sufficient to rescue them from the poverty and distress with which they were threatened. Upon this principle rests the utility of insurances upon lives. Persons having incomes determinable upon their own lives, or the lives of others, arising from landed property, from church livings, from public employments, pensions, annuities, &c. by paying such an annual premium as they can spare from their present necessities, may secure to their widows, their children, or other dependents, an adequate sum of money, or an equivalent annuity, payable upon their deaths. By such insurances also, may the fines to be paid upon the renewal of leases, or the descent of copy-holds, be provided for. So, where a person, having only a life income, wants to borrow money, but can only give his own personal security for it, he may, by insuring his life, secure to the lender the repayment of his money, though he should die before he is enabled to discharge the debt.

Offices. These considerations induced the bishop of Oxford, and several other benevolent persons in the reign of Queen Anne, to apply for the charter by which the corporation, called the *Amicable Society*, was established; to enable persons to subscribe part of their incomes, in order that the representatives of each subscriber should, upon their death, receive such sums as the

funds of the corporation would enable them to pay upon the ſeveral deaths happening each year. But as the benefits of this ſociety were confined to a limited number of ſubſcribers, and thoſe only for ſmall ſums, ſeveral other corporations and companies upon more extenſive plans have been eſtabliſhed. The *Royal Exchange* and *London Aſſurance* companies obtained charters from George I. to enable them to make inſurances upon lives. The ſociety for *Equitable Aſſurances* on lives and ſurvivorſhips, was eſtabliſhed in the year 1762, by deed inrolled in the court of King's Bench at Weſtminſter, in which every perſon that inſures becomes a member, participating in the profit and loſs of the ſociety. The ſucceſs attending this eſtabliſhment has given riſe to others; namely, the *Weſtminſter Society*, for inſurance on lives and ſurvivorſhips, and granting annuities; the *Pelican* life inſurance company; to theſe may be added the offices already mentioned, where the buſineſs of inſurance on lives is carried on together with that againſt fires, and a few others, as the *Annuity Society for the benefit of widows*, the *Laudable Society* for the ſame purpoſe, and the *Life Aſſurance Society, for the benefit of widows and female relations*. The buſineſs is not however confined to theſe offices, private policies being frequently effected.

Warranty. It is generally a condition or warranty in inſurances upon lives, either inſerted in the policy, or contained in a declaration or agreement ſigned by the inſured, that the perſon whoſe life is meant to be inſured has not any diſorder which tends to the ſhortening of life; that he has or has not, had the ſmall pox; and that his age does not exceed ſo many years; that this declaration ſhall be the baſis of the contract between the inſurers and the inſured; and that, if any untrue averment be contained therein, the contract ſhall be void, and all money paid on account of the inſurance forfeited; and as this declaration is to be taken as part of the written contract amounting to a warranty, it behoves every perſon who makes an inſurance upon a life, to be very circumſpect in aſcertaining the truth of the allegations contained in it; becauſe upon that the validity of the contract muſt depend. By the warranty that the perſon, whoſe life is to be inſured, *has no diſorder which tends to the ſhortening of life*, is not to be underſtood that he is perfectly free from the ſeeds of all diſorder. The warranty is ſufficiently true if he be in a reaſonably good ſtate of heath, and, that his life may be inſured on the common terms, for a perſon of his age and condition.

Mode of Insuring. In the office of the Equitable Society and moſt of the others, an aſſurance is effected in this manner. The party whoſe life is to be the object of the policy goes to the

the office, and fills up a printed propoſal with his name and profeſſion, place, and date of birth, preſent reſidence, age, (which muſt include the current year, that is to ſay, he who was twenty on his laſt birth day, is ſtated to be twenty-one) the term and aſſurance to be effected, and a declaration whether the party has had the ſmall pox, or is afflicted with the gout. It is alſo required that a reference be given to two reſpectable perſons, one of whom ſhould be a medical man, to aſcertain the party's health. A depoſit is made, proportioned to the ſum to be inſured, which is to be forfeited if the policy fails to be completed through neglect of the propoſer. The perſon to be aſſured alſo appears in perſon before a committee of the directors, who for that purpoſe, generally, allot a day in every week. The appearance may however be diſpenſed with, on paying a certain advance on the premium. Before the policy is delivered, the party, for whoſe uſe it is made, by himſelf or his agent, ſigns a declaration, containing in ſubſtance the allegations in the paper of the propoſals, and allowing, that if any untrue averment is contained in the declaration, all monies which ſhall have been paid to the ſociety, on account of the inſurance made in conſequence thereof, ſhall be forfeited.

Interest and Risk. The ſpirit of gaming on lives by means of policies of aſſurance is reſtrained by the ſtatute 14 Geo. III. c. 48, which declares all inſurances void, where the perſons making them have no intereſt. The different inſurance companies annex to the contract certain conditions or exceptions. The *Royal Exchange Aſſurance* declares every inſurance made by a perſon *on his own life* to be void, if the perſon whoſe life is inſured, ſhall depart the limits of Europe, ſhall die upon the ſeas, or enter into any military or naval ſervice whatſoever, without the previous conſent of the company, or ſhall die by ſuicide, duelling, or the hands of juſtice. When the inſurance is made by a perſon, *on the life of another*, death, "*by ſuicide, duelling, or the hand of juſtice*" is not excepted. *The Weſtminſter Society* adopts the ſame exceptions. The *Equitable Aſſurance*, and the *Pelican Life Inſurance*, adopt the ſame exceptions, only omitting the word *duelling*, even where the party inſures his own life.

Conſidering the great multiplicity of inſurances, which have of late years been made upon lives, ſerjeant Marſhall obſerves, the litigated caſes that have ariſen upon them, are extremely few. One principal reaſon is, that the happening of the event inſured againſt, is always a fact of eaſy proof, which can ſcarcely ever afford any ſubject of diſpute: another is the great difficulty of practiſing any fraud in ſuch inſurances. But to no cauſe is this fortunate circumſtance more to be aſcribed, than to the known

known integrity and liberality of the ſeveral companies engaged in this branch of inſurance.

TRADE IN GENERAL.

Having detailed theſe particulars, it is now thought proper to notice, in a miſcellaneous way, ſome circumſtances which affect trade in general, although chiefly objects of domeſtic regulation.

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES. By the 27th chapter of *Magna Charta*, the weights and meaſures ought to be the ſame over all England, and thoſe to be according to the king's ſtandards of weights and meaſures, kept in the exchequer by a ſpecial officer of his houſe, called the clerk or comptroller of the market.

Of weights there are two ſorts, uſed at preſent through all England; viz. troy weight and avoirdupois. By troy weight are weighed bread, corn, gold, ſilver, jewels, and liquors; the apothecaries and goldſmiths have the ſame pound, ounce, and grain; but they differ in their intermediate diviſions; but although the apothecaries make up their medicines by troy-weight, they buy their drugs by avoirdupois-weight.

Avoirdupois (which in French ſignifies to have full weight) exiſts by cuſtom, but is confirmed by ſtatute; and thereby are weighed all kinds of grocery wares, drugs, butter, cheeſe, fleſh, wax, pitch, tar, tallow, wool, hemp, flax, iron, ſteel, lead, and all other commodities which bear the name of garbel, and from which comes a refuſe or waſte; (and alſo bread, by the 31ſt Geo. II. c. 29.) and this has to the pound ſixteen ounces; and twelve pounds over are allowed to every hundred.

The troy ounce is more than the avoirdupois ounce; for fifty-one ounces troy, are equal to fifty-ſix ounces avourdupois; but the avoirdupois pound is more than the troy pound; for fourteen pounds avoirdupois, are equal to ſeventeen pounds troy-weight.

Meaſures are either applicative or receptive; the ſmalleſt applicative meaſure is a barley corn, whereof three in length make a finger's breadth, or inch; four inches make an hand; three hands a foot; one foot and a half a cubit; two cubits a yard; in a yard are ſixteen nails; one yard and a quarter an ell; a Dutch ell or ſtick, by which tapeſtry is meaſured, is but three quarters of a yard; five feet make a geometrical pace; ſix feet a fathom; ſixteen feet and a half make a perch, pole, or

or rod; but there are other cuſtomary perches or poles; viz. eighteen feet for fens and woodland; twenty-one for foreſt, Lancaſhire, and Iriſh meaſure; and 18 ¾ Scotch; forty perches make a furlong; eight furlongs or 320 perches, make an Engliſh mile; which, according to the ſtatute of 11 Henry. VII. ought to be 1760 yards, 5280 feet; that is, 280 feet more than the Italian mile; ſixty miles (more exactly, ſixty-nine Engliſh miles and an half) make a degree; and 360 ſuch degrees, or 24,840 miles, compaſs the whole globe of the earth. Horſes are meaſured by the hand. For meaſuring of land in England, forty perches in length, and four in breadth, make an acre, ſo called from the German word acker, and that from the Latin word ager. Thirty acres ordinary, make a yard land; an hundred acres are accounted an hide of land; and ſix hundred and forty acres a mile ſquare. Of timber forty-three ſolid feet make a ton; and fifty three feet a load.

Receptive meaſure is two-fold; of liquid, or moiſt things; and of dry things.

The ordinary ſmalleſt receptive meaſure is called a pint: two pints make a quart; two quarts make a pottle; two pottles make a gallon, a gallon of beer, or the meaſure containing 282 ſolid inches, and holds of rain water 10 lbs. 3 ozs. $\frac{375}{1000}$ avoirdupois; eight gallons a firkin of ale; two ſuch firkins make a kilderkin; and two kilderkins, or thirty-two gallons, make a barrel of ale; and twelve barrels a laſt; nine gallons a firkin of beer; two ſuch firkins, or eighteen gallons, make a kilderkin; two ſuch kilderkins, or thirty-ſix gallons, make a barrel of beer; one barrel and an half, or fifty-four gallons, make an hogſhead; two hogſheads make a pipe or butt; and two pipes a tun, conſiſting of 1728 pints or pounds; a barrel of butter or ſoap is the ſame with a barrel of ale.

The Engliſh wine meaſures are ſmaller than thoſe of ale and beer, and hold proportion as about four to five. So that four gallons of beer meaſure are almoſt five gallons of wine meaſure; and each gallon of wine is 231 cubical inches, eight pounds, one ounce, and eleven drams avoirdupois of rain water: of theſe gallons a runlet of wine holds eighteen; half an hogſhead thirty-one gallons and an half; a tierce of wine holds forty-two gallons; an hogſhead ſixty-three gallons; a puncheon eighty-four gallons; a pipe or butt holds one hundred and twenty-ſix; and a tun two hundred and fifty-two gallons, or 2016 pints

To meaſure dry things, as corn or grain, there is firſt the gallon which is bigger than the wine gallon, and leſs than the ale or beer gallon, containing 272¼ cubical inches, and nine pounds, thirteen ounces, twelve drams and an half avoirdu-

pois

pois weight. Two of theſe gallons make a peck, four pecks a buſhel, four buſhels the comb or curnock, two curnocks make a quarter, ſeam, or ruff, and ten quarters a laſt, which contains 5120 pints, and ſo many pounds troy-weight; ſo that a garriſon of five thouſand men, allowing each but a pound of bread per diem, will conſume near a laſt, or eighty buſhels, every day; and two hundred and fifty men in a ſhip will drink a tun of beer in two days, allowing each man about a pottle per diem.

Meal is weighed as corn; but the common repute is, that a gallon of wheaten meal weighs ſeven pounds avoirdupois, and eight pounds ſix ounces, four penny-weights troy; ſo a buſhel is fifty-ſix pounds avoirdupois, and ſixty-eight pounds, one ounce, twele penny-weights troy. All other grain, and ſo likewiſe ſalt, lime, coals, &c. follow this meaſure, which is called Wincheſter meaſure. But note, that where ſea coal and ſalt are meaſured with this buſhel, then they are heaped, or elſe there are allowed five ſtriked pecks to the buſhel, and this is called water meaſure. Thirty-ſix buſhels are a chaldron of coals; and on ſhip board they allow twenty-one chaldrons to the ſcore.

Notwithſtanding the many ſtatutes which have been enacted, that there ſhall be but one weight and one meaſure throughout the realm, the force of cuſtom is often too powerful for law, and weights and meaſures of the ſame denomination imply different quantities in different parts of the kingdom. But in legal conſtruction, no weights or meaſures can be taken notice of, except thoſe recogniſed by law. Thus, if a man ſhould contract for pounds or yards, in a place where the cuſtom is to ſell eighteen ounces for a pound, or thirty-eight inches for a yard, ſtill, in ſtrict law, his contract would be ſatisfied if the ſeller delivered to him at the rate of ſixteen ounces and thirty-ſix inches.

By 8 Hen. VI. c. 5, and ſubſequent ſtatutes; In every city, borough, and town, a common balance ſhall be, with common weights ſealed, and according to the ſtandard of the exchequer, upon the common coſts of ſuch city, borough, or town, in the keeping of the mayor or conſtable; on pain of 10 *l.* for ſuch city making default, borough 5*l.* and town, where a conſtable is, 40*s.*

At this balance, all the inhabitants may freely weigh, without any thing paying; and juſtices of the peace, mayors, bailiffs, and ſtewards of franchiſes, may inquire of offenders againſt this ordnance, and do execution of them that be found faulty by inqueſts, or by their own examination. The clerk of the market, and where there is none, the mayor or head officer,

or

or other perſon having benefit of the market, ſhall cauſe to be ſealed all meaſures duly gauged, brought to them for that purpoſe; and the mayors and other head officers in market towns, ſhall twice a year, or oftener, cauſe all weights and meaſures within the ſame, to be brought before them and examined; and ſuch as they find defective, to be broken and burnt; and the offender ſhall forfeit to the mayor or other officer, for the firſt time, 6s 8d; for the ſecond time, 13s 4d; and the third time 20s. and be ſet on the pillory. Selling by falſe weights and meaſures, is alſo an offence at the common law, and conſequently may be puniſhed on indictment, by fine and impriſonment.

By 35 Geo. III. c. 102. The juſtices, at every quarter ſeſſions, were to appoint perſons to examine weights and balances, and to ſeize and deſtroy thoſe that were falſe or unequal, and a penalty was impoſed on the perſon in whoſe poſſeſſion the ſame were found; which part of the ſaid act is by 37 Geo. III. c. 143, repealed and it is enacted, that the juſtices at their reſpective petty ſeſſions within their diviſions, diſtricts, and places, may appoint perſons, with power to examine the weights and balances within ſuch diviſion, diſtrict, or place. And theſe perſons (having been firſt ſworn duly and faithfully to execute ſuch office) ſhall, as often as the ſaid juſtices ſhall direct, in the day time enter into ſhops, mills, or other premiſes, and into the ſtalls or ſtanding places of perſons ſelling by retail, and ſearch for, view and examine all the weights and balances therein, and ſeize thoſe that are not according to the ſtandard, or any falſe or unequal balance there found, and ſhall detain the ſame, to be produced at ſuch petty ſeſſions upon the hearing of the information hereafter mentioned; and the perſon in whoſe cuſtody the ſame ſhall be found, ſhall, upon conviction in ſuch petty ſeſſions, upon view, confeſſion, or oath of one witneſs, forfeit not exceeding 20l. nor leſs than 5s. as ſuch ſeſſions ſhall think fit, together with the coſts, which may be levied by diſtreſs, by warrant of two juſtices; who ſhall cauſe ſuch falſe weights and balances to be broken and rendered uſeleſs, and the materials thereof to be ſold, and the money ariſing from ſuch ſale, together with the amount of ſuch forfeitures, ſhall be paid to the treaſurer of the county, to be applied in carrying thoſe acts into execution; and the reſidue (if any) ſhall go to the county ſtock: and ſuch juſtices ſhall ſign a return of the ſums ſo raiſed, and cauſe the ſame to be tranſmitted to the clerk of the peace at every quarter ſeſſion. And the juſtices ſhall purchaſe, for the uſe of their reſpective counties, out of the county rate, proper weights, according to the ſtandard in the exchequer, which ſhall be depoſited for the inſpection of all perſons, either with the reſpective clerks of

the peace, or with ſome proper perſon in ſuch convenient place within each county, as the juſtices ſhall direct, and ſhall be produced by the perſon in whoſe cuſtody they are lodged (upon reaſonable notice) at ſuch time and place as any perſon ſhall, by writing under his hand, require and appoint, on his paying the reaſonable charges of producing the ſame.

Provided, that if the majority of the inhabitants of any pariſh, townſhip, or place, be deſirous that any perſon ſhall be ſpecially appointed to examine the weights and balances within ſuch places, and ſhall (at a veſtry to be holden for that purpoſe) nominate one or more ſubſtantial houſe holder or houſe holders, to be approved at a ſpecial ſeſſions for the diviſion, ſuch perſon, being ſo approved, ſhall have the ſame power as any perſon appointed for the diſtrict. But no ſuch appointment can be made, until the inhabitants have procured ſtandard weights, to be depoſited with the perſon ſo appointed, for the uſe of ſuch place; and ſuch petty ſeſſions may order the charges of procuring ſuch weights, and the recompenſe to be allowed to the perſon ſo appointed for his trouble, to be paid out of the poor rate. Perſons obſtructing thoſe who are acting in the execution of this ſtatute are liable to a penalty, not exceeding forty ſhillings, nor leſs than five; and perſons puniſhed under this act, ſhall not be otherwiſe puniſhed by any other law. But it is to be obſerved, that theſe ſtatutes apply to weights and balances alone, and not to meaſures, and therefore in many pariſhes, which are regulated by ſpecial acts of parliament, it has been found neceſſary to introduce a clauſe in their acts, enabling the ſelect veſtry, or other regulating body, to appoint inſpectors, both of weights and meaſures.

AUCTIONS. The ſale by auction is not peculiar to modern commerce; the curious trace it to a remote period of antiquity, without aſcertaining its origin. It poſſeſſes many advantages, not unmixed with fraud and inconvenience, but the benefits greatly outweigh the abuſes. The mode of ſelling by auction generally practiſed, is too well known to need deſcription; a peculiar practice is that termed a *ſale by candle*, which is when a ſmall piece of candle being lighted, the by-ſtanders are allowed to bid for the merchandize which is ſelling; but the moment the candle is out, the commodity is adjudged to the laſt bidder.

By 19 Geo. III. c. 56, and other ſtatutes, every auctioneer is obliged to take out an annual licence of ſix ſhillings, in which muſt be ſet forth his true name and place of abode; the penalty on omiſſion is, within the bills of mortality 100*l.*, elſewhere 50*l.* The auctioneer, within the juriſdiction of the head exciſe office in London, muſt alſo give bond to the king, with two ſureties

ſureties, himſelf in 1000 *l.* and his ſureties in 200 *l.* each; that he will account for the ſales, and pay the duties reſerved by the various ſtatutes; in other places the ſecurity is the party in 500 *l.*, and two ſecurities in 50*l.* each.

The duties on goods ſold by auction are; on eſtates, ſhares in joint ſtock of chartered companies, ſhips, and reverſions, ſixpence in the pound. Furniture, fixtures, pictures, books, horſes, and carriages, and all other goods and chattels whatſoever, tenpence in the pound. And the auctioneer, beſides the bond given on receiving his licence, gives a further bond with two ſureties in 5000*l.* that he will, within fourteen days after every ſuch ſale, deliver an account thereof at the next exciſe office, and will not ſell any goods contrary to the directions of the act. From theſe duties there are, for the benefit of trade, numerous exceptions; they are, piece goods ſold by auction, wove in this kingdom, ſold entire in the piece or quantity as taken from the loom, and in lots of the price of 20*l.* or upwards; and ſold in no other than entered places, and openly ſhewn and expoſed at ſuch ſale. Corn and grain of every ſort, flour and meal, pork, hams, bacon, cheeſe, and butter, imported into Great Britain, on the firſt ſale. Goods imported by way of merchandize from Yucatan; elephant oil produced from ſea cows or ſea elephants; whalebone, ambergris, and head matter, ſkins of ſeals, and other animals living in the ſea; elephant's teeth, palm oil, dying wood, drugs and other articles for dyer's uſe; mahogany and other manufactured wood for the uſe of cabinet makers and other manufacturers, imported in Britiſh ſhips from Africa, America, or any Britiſh ſettlement abroad, on the firſt ſale at auction, by or for the account of the original importer; ſo as ſuch ſale be made within twelve months after the goods are imported, and the ſame be ſold by a licenſed auctioneer. The exemptions alſo extend to ſales of eſtates or chattels made by the order of the court of chancery or exchequer, or courts of great ſeſſions in Wales; any ſales made by the Eaſt India or Hudſon's Bay companies; by order of the commiſſioners of exciſe; the board of ordnance; commiſſioners of the navy or victualling offices; by the ſheriff, for the benefit of creditors, in execution of judgments; goods diſtrained for rent, or non payment of tithes; effects of bankrupts ſold by aſſignees; goods imported by way of merchandize from any Britiſh colony in America, being of the growth or manufacture of ſuch colony, on the firſt ſale, on account of the original importer, ſo as ſuch ſale be made within twelve months after importation; ſhips or their cargoes condemned as prize, and ſold for the benefit of the captors; ſhips or goods wrecked or ſtranded, ſold for the benefit of the inſurers, or

proprietors; goods damaged by fire and ſold for the benefit of inſurers; auctions held on the account of the lord or lady of the manor for the granting any copyhold or cuſtomary meſſuages, lands, or tenements, for the term of a life or lives, or any number of years, to be created by the perſon on whoſe account ſuch action ſhall be held; ſales of wood, coppice, produce of mines or quarries, or materials for working the ſame, or for the ſale of any cattle, and live or dead ſtock, or unmanufactured produce of land, ſo as ſuch laſt mentioned ſale be made whilſt they continue on the lands producing the ſame, and by the owner of ſuch lands, or proprietor of, or adventurer in, ſuch mines or quarries, or by their ſteward or agent. Many regulations are eſtabliſhed for prevention of frauds in the collection of theſe duties; but, to encourage ſales by auction, they are remitted on goods bought in, by the perſon putting them up to ſale, or by his agent employed at the ſale under a notice in writing ſigned as well by him as the perſon intended to be the bidder, being appointed by the owner, and having accordingly agreed to bid for the uſe of the ſeller.

As few profeſſions require a greater ſhare of ability than that of an auctioneer, ſo there are few in which induſtry, ability, and integrity have been more amply and honourably rewarded. On the other hand, in deſcribing the cheats and ſwindlers who infeſt the metropolis, Mr. Colquhoun has the following paragraph. Swindlers who take out licences as auctioneers, and open ſhops in different parts of the metropolis, with perſons at the doors uſually denominated barkers, inviting ſtrangers to walk in. In theſe places various articles of ſilver, plate, and houſehold goods are expoſed to ſale, made up on a ſlight principle, and of little intrinſic value; aſſociates, generally denominated puffers, are in waiting to bid up the article to a ſum greatly beyond its value, when upon the firſt bidding of the ſtranger it is knocked down to him, and the money inſtantly demanded; the goods however on being carried home and examined, are generally found to be very different in reality, from what their appearance exhibited, and upon a cloſe examination the fraud is diſcovered. Neither the common law, nor the act of the 30th Geo. III. cap. 24, ſeem to be ſufficiently *broad* and explanatory to include this ſpecies of offence; and hence it is that this mode of ſelling goods continues with impunity, and ſeems to increaſe. It is not, however, meant here to inſinuate that all petty auctions are fraudulent. It is to be hoped there may be ſome exceptions, although, probably they are not numerous.

Apprentices. In mechanical or handicraft trades, huſbandry, mercantile navigation, and ſome other employments, a

ſpecies

ſpecies of ſervants is retained, under the name of apprentices ſo called from *apprendre*, to learn. They are uſually bound for a term of years, and muſt be ſo by deed indented or indentures, to ſerve their maſters, and be maintained and inſtructed by them. Sometimes very large ſums are given with them, as premiums for ſuch their inſtruction. There are many old ſtatutes regulating the conditions of perſons who ſhall take apprentices, and obliging ſome to be bound, but many of theſe are become obſolete. But there are other ſtatutes limiting the number to be entertained by each maſter, which in particular trades, are ſtill adhered to; and no perſon can be bound to enter into any apprenticeſhip after the age of twenty-one. Indentures made by infants are binding, provided they are for the term of ſeven years, but every indenture of an infant, is voidable, at his election, on his attaining his majority.

By various ſtatutes, the church-wardens and overſeers, or the greater part of them, by the aſſent of two juſtices, may bind any ſuch children, whoſe parents they ſhall judge not able to maintain them, to be apprentices where they ſhall ſee convenient, till ſuch child, if male, ſhall come to the age of twenty-one, and, if female, to the age of twenty-one, or be married; the ſame to be as effectual to all purpoſes as if ſuch child were of full age, and by indenture of covenant bound him or herſelf. By 32 Geo. III. c. 57, after reciting, that in indentures of pariſh apprentices, it has been uſual to inſert ſeveral agreements and covenants to be done and performed by the ſeveral parties thereto, and amongſt other things, that the maſter ſhall, during the term of ſuch apprenticeſhip, find and allow to ſuch apprentice, ſufficient meat, drink, apparel, lodging, and all other things needful for an apprentice; it is enacted, that in all pariſh indentures, where no more than 5*l.* ſhall be given with ſuch apprentice, there ſhall be annexed to the covenant in ſuch indentures for ſuch maintenance as aforeſaid, a proviſo declaring, that ſuch covenant ſhall not be made to continue and be in force longer than three calendar months next after the death of ſuch maſter, in caſe he ſhall die during the term of ſuch apprenticeſhip: and in caſe ſuch proviſo be omitted in ſuch indenture, the covenant for maintenance ſhall be in force for no longer time than three calendar months next after the death of ſuch maſter; any thing in any ſuch covenant to the contrary notwithſtanding. If the maſter becomes inſolvent, or ſo far reduced as to be unable to employ or maintain ſuch apprentice; two juſtices, where ſuch maſter lives, may, on requeſt of the maſter, inquire into the matter, and diſcharge the apprentice; but this, only in caſes where no apprentice fee exceeding 5*l.* has been given. The

overſeers are obliged to regiſter ſuch apprentices in a book, which muſt be ſigned by two juſtices, and if they refuſe to produce, or if they obliterate or deface it, they are liable to a penalty of 5*l.*, and if the apprentice is aſſigned over during his apprenticeſhip, that is alſo regiſtered.

A maſter may by law correct and chaſtiſe his apprentice, for neglect or other miſbehaviour, ſo it be done with moderation: but he may not of his own accord diſcharge his apprentice, but if they cannot agree, the maſter is empowered by 5 Eliz. c. 4, to repair to one juſtice of the county, or to the mayor or other head officer of the city, town corporate, or market-town, or other place where the maſter dwells; who ſhall take ſuch order and direction between the maſter and his apprentice as the equity of the caſe ſhall require: and if, for want of good conformity in the maſter, the juſtice or head officer cannot compound and agree the matter, he ſhall take bond of the ſaid maſter to appear at the next ſeſſions; and on his appearance, and hearing of the matter there, if it be thought meet to diſcharge the ſaid apprentice, then the juſtices, or four of them at the leaſt, or the mayor or other head officer, with the conſent of three other of his brethren, or men of beſt reputation in ſuch city, town corporate or market-town, ſhall have power, in writing under their hands and ſeals to pronounce and declare, that they have diſcharged the apprentice of his apprenticehood, and the cauſe thereof: and the ſaid writing, being inrolled by the clerk of the peace, or town clerk, amongſt the records, ſhall be a ſufficient diſcharge for the apprentice, againſt his maſter, his executors, and adminiſtrators. And if the default ſhall be found to be in the apprentice, then the ſaid juſtices, or mayor or other head officer, with the aſſiſtance aforeſaid; ſhall cauſe ſuch due correction and puniſhment to be adminiſtered unto him, as by their wiſdom and diſcretion ſhall be thought meet. By other ſtatutes, on complaint to two juſtices, by any pariſh apprentice, or other apprentice, upon whoſe binding out no larger ſum than 5*l.* was paid, concerning any miſuſage, refuſal of neceſſary proviſion, cruelty, or other ill treatment, they may ſummon the maſter or miſtreſs, to appear before them, at a reaſonable time to be named in ſuch ſummons; and on proof upon oath of the truth of the ſaid complaint (whether the maſter or miſtreſs be preſent or not, if ſervice of the ſummons be alſo upon oath proved) the ſaid juſtices may diſcharge the apprentice by warrant or certificate under their hands and ſeals, for which warrant or certificate no fee ſhall be paid. Where any pariſh apprentice ſhall be ſo diſcharged, the juſtice may order the maſter to deliver up to the apprentice his cloaths; and alſo to pay the church-wardens or overſeers

overſeers of the place to which the apprentice belongs, any ſum not exceeding 10*l.* to be applied by them, under the order of the juſtices, for the original binding out ſuch apprentice, or otherwiſe for his benefit; and alſo to pay any ſum not exceeding 5*l.* in caſe the maſter refuſes to deliver up ſuch cloaths; theſe ſums on refuſal to be levied by diſtreſs, with the coſts. And the juſtices may compel the church-wardens and overſeers, to enter into recognizance for the effectual proſecution, by indictment, of the maſter, for the ill treatment of his apprentice; and order the expenſes of ſuch proſecution to be paid or reimburſed, one moiety out of the poor rates of the pariſh, and the other out of the county rate. Or two juſtices in petty ſeſſions may impoſe, upon conviction, any reaſonable fine not exceeding 40*s.* upon ſuch maſter, as a puniſhment for ſuch ill uſage: and if not paid, may levy the ſame by diſtreſs; to be applied at their diſcretion, either to the uſe of the poor, or for the benefit of the apprentice, towards recompenſe for the injury he may have ſuſtained by reaſon of ſuch ill uſage.

Two juſtices may alſo, on complaint on oath by any maſter or miſtreſs, againſt any ſuch apprentice, concerning any miſdemeanor, miſcarriage, or ill behaviour, hear and determine the ſame, and puniſh the offender, by commitment to the houſe of correction, there to remain and be corrected, and held to hard labour for a reaſonable time, not exceeding one calendar month, or otherwiſe by diſcharging ſuch apprentice. In all theſe caſes, perſons aggrieved may appeal to the quarter ſeſſions.

By 6 Geo. III. c. 25, if any apprentice ſhall abſent himſelf from his maſter's ſervice, before the term of his apprenticeſhip ſhall be expired, he ſhall, at any time thereafter, whenever he ſhall be found (ſo it be within ſeven years after the expiration of his term), be compelled to ſerve his ſaid maſter, for ſo long time as he ſhall have abſented himſelf; unleſs he ſhall make ſatisfaction to his maſter for the loſs he ſhall have ſuſtained by ſuch abſence: and if he ſhall refuſe ſo to ſerve, or to make ſatisfaction, the maſter may complain upon oath to one juſtice where he ſhall reſide; who ſhall iſſue his warrant for apprehending ſuch apprentice. And ſuch juſtice, on hearing the complaint, may determine what ſatisfaction ſhall be made to ſuch maſter by the apprentice. And if the ſaid apprentice ſhall not give ſecurity to make ſatisfaction according to ſuch determination, ſuch juſtice may commit him to the houſe of correction for any time not exceeding three months.

The inticing of an apprentice to depart from his maſter is not an offence of a public nature, for which an indictment will

lie; but the party's remedy is by an action on the caſe. An apprentice is protected alſo from being impreſſed.

By the common law, no man may be prohibited to work in any lawful trade, or in more trades than one, at his pleaſure; ſo that without an act of parliament, no man may be reſtrained, either to work in any lawful trade, or to uſe divers myſteries or trades; therefore an act of parliament made to reſtrain any perſon herein, muſt be taken ſtrictly and not favourably, as acts made in affirmance of common law. The reſtraining clauſe in the ſtatute of 5 Eliz. c. 4. is as follows: it ſhall not be lawful to any perſon, to ſet up, occupy, uſe or exerciſe, any craft, myſtery, or occupation, now uſed or occupied within the realm of England and Wales, except he ſhall have been brought up therein ſeven years at the leaſt, as an apprentice by this ſtatute, nor to ſet any perſon on work therein, except he ſhall have been apprentice as aforeſaid, or elſe, having ſerved as an apprentice, will become a journeyman, or be hired by the year; on pain of 40*s.* a month; half to the king; and the other to the informer. By the 15 Chas. II. c. 15. Hemp-workers of all kinds, net makers, and makers of tapeſtry hangings are excepted; they may ſet up, without having ſerved ſeven years; and by 3 Geo. III. c. 8. All officers, mariners, and ſoldiers, who have been employed in his majeſty's ſervice, and not deſerted, may exerciſe ſuch trade as they are apt for, in any town or place. And by 6 and 7 W. c. 17. An apprentice diſcovering two offenders guilty of coining, ſo as they are convicted, ſhall be deemed a freeman, and may exerciſe his trade as if he had ſerved out his time.

A perſon may work as a journeyman who has not ſerved a regular apprenticeſhip; or a perſon brought up to the trade may take a partner, who has not ſerved an apprenticeſhip to the trade, provided the partner ſhare only in the profits or loſs of the buſineſs, and do not actually exerciſe the trade. And the words of the ſtatute "*now uſed*", are conſtrued to refer to the 12th of January, 1562, when that parliament began; no trades therefore, but ſuch as were trades at the time of making this ſtatute, are within it. This ſtatute has of late years been regarded by the courts with an unfavourable eye, as being in derogation of the liberty of the ſubject, and in reſtraint of the freedom of trade. It has almoſt become inoperative by the conſtruction it has received, and it may be at any time rendered altogether nugatory by a party unqualified reaping the profits of a trade by means of a qualified partner.

JOURNEYMEN AND SERVANTS. The conſideration of theſe two claſſes becomes connected becauſe of the extenſive ſignification of the term ſervant, and the ſimilarity of regulation

which prevails with reſpect to journeymen in trades, and domeſtic ſervants.

HIRING. By the 5 Eliz. c. 4. perſons brought up in certain mechanical trades, and not being married, or if married, not being above thirty years of age, nor having an eſtate of inheritance of 40*s.* a year, nor being worth 10*l.*, nor exempted by ſerving a nobleman, gentleman, or other perſon, nor by holding a farm, muſt, on requeſt made by any perſon uſing the art and myſtery wherein the ſaid perſon has been exerciſed, be retained, and ſerve for a term to be agreed on, or if no term agreed on, for one year at the leaſt, and of the end of the ſervice, except the ſervant is turned away for miſconduct, a quarter's notice is to be given. In ſimilar manner, perſons aged between twelve and ſixty, who do not fall within certain deſcriptions enumerated in the ſtatute, are compellable to ſerve in huſbandry. Women between twelve and forty years of age, may alſo be compelled to ſerve, by two juſtices, or by the mayor or other officers in towns corporate, by the year, week, or day, for wages to be by them fixed; and if they will not conſent may be committed to priſon till they do. If a ſervant retained for a year, happen within the time of his ſervice to fall ſick, or to be hurt or diſabled by the act of God, or in doing his maſter's buſineſs, the maſter muſt not therefore put ſuch ſervant away, nor abate any part of his wages for ſuch time.

CHARACTER. A maſter is not bound to give a ſervant any character at all, but if he gives any, it muſt be a true one. If a falſe character is given to the prejudice of a ſervant, he can maintain an action for damages; and the 32 Geo. III, after reciting, that falſe and counterfeit characters of ſervants have either been given perſonally or in writing by evil diſpoſed perſons, contrary to truth, and to the peace and ſecurity of his majeſty's ſubjects; enacts that, if any perſon ſhall falſely perſonate any maſter or miſtreſs, or the executor, adminiſtrator, wife, relation, houſekeeper, ſteward, agent, or ſervant of any ſuch maſter or miſtreſs, and ſhall, either perſonally or in writing, give any falſe, forged or counterfeited character of any perſon offering to hire; every ſuch perſon ſo offending ſhall forfeit 20*l.* a ſimilar penalty is extended to other falſe repreſentations, and to ſervants offering themſelves with falſe ſtories, or with forged or falſe certificates of character.

WAGES, &c. The ſtatute of Elizabeth, which is very minute in its proviſions, empowers the juſtices, annually, at Eaſter ſeſſions, to fix the rate of wages for artificers, handicraftſmen, huſbandmen, labourers, ſervants, and workmen; which rates are to be proclaimed, and kept among the records

of the county or town corporate, and the maſter muſt not exceed them, under the penalty of 5 *l.* and all contracts for ſuch exceeding wages are void. The ſame ſtatute alſo directs the number of hours in which the artificers and labourers ſo hired ſhall work, and how many ſhall be allowed them for food and repoſe. And perſons refuſing to work in harveſt time, are to be ſet in the ſtocks two days and a night.

Responsibility. The reſponſibility of a maſter for the act of his ſervant is thus explained and illuſtrated by Sir William Blackſtone. As for thoſe things which a ſervant may do on behalf of his maſter, they ſeem all to proceed on this principle, that the maſter is anſwerable for the act of his ſervant, if done by his command, either expreſsly given, or implied: *nam qui facit per alium, facit per ſe.* Therefore, if the ſervant commit a treſpaſs by the command or encouragement of his maſter, the maſter ſhall be guilty of it: though the ſervant is not thereby excuſed, for he is only to obey his maſter in matters that are honeſt and lawful. If an inn-keeper's ſervant rob his gueſts, the maſter is bound to reſtitution: for as there is a confidence repoſed in him, that he will take care to provide honeſt ſervants, his negligence is a kind of implied conſent to the robbery; *nam, qui non prohibet, cum prohibere poſſit, jubet.* So likewiſe if the drawer at a tavern ſells a man bad wine, whereby his health is injured, he may bring an action againſt the maſter: for although the maſter did not expreſsly order the ſervant to ſell it to that perſon in particular, yet his permitting him to draw and ſell it at all is impliedly a general command. In the ſame manner, whatever a ſervant is permitted to do in the uſual courſe of his buſineſs, is equivalent to a general command. If I pay money to a banker's ſervant, the banker is anſwerable for it: if I pay it to a clergyman's or a phyſician's ſervant, whoſe uſual buſineſs it is not to receive money for his maſter, and he embezzles it, I muſt pay it over again. If a ſteward lets a leaſe of a farm, without the owner's knowledge, the owner muſt ſtand to the bargain; for this is the ſteward's buſineſs. A wife, a friend, a relation, that uſe to tranſact buſineſs for a man, are *quoad hoc* his ſervants; and the principle muſt anſwer for their conduct; for the law implies, that they act under a general command; and without ſuch a doctrine as this no mutual intercourſe between man and man, could ſubſiſt with any tolerable convenience. If I uſually deal with a tradeſman by myſelf, or conſtantly pay him ready money, I am not anſwerable for what my ſervant takes up upon truſt; for here is no implied order to the tradeſman to truſt my ſervant: but if I uſually ſend him upon truſt, or ſometimes on truſt and ſometimes with ready money, I am anſwerable for all he takes up;

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for the tradeſman cannot poſſibly diſtinguiſh when he comes by my order, and when upon his own authority. And if, Mr. Chriſtian adds, I once pay for what my ſervant bought upon truſt, without expreſſing any diſapprobation of it, it is equivalent to a direction to truſt him in future; and I ſhall be anſwerable for all he takes up upon credit, till an expreſs order is given to the tradeſman not to give him further credit. If a ſervant, laſtly, by his negligence does any damage to a ſtranger, the maſter ſhall anſwer for his neglect: if a ſmith's ſervant lames a horſe while he is ſhoeing him, an action lies againſt the maſter and not againſt the ſervant, but in theſe caſes the damage muſt be done, while he is actually employed in the maſter's ſervice; otherwiſe the ſervant ſhall anſwer for his own miſbehaviour. Upon this principle, by the common law, if a ſervant kept his maſter's fire negligently, ſo that his neighbour's houſe was burned down thereby, an action lay againſt the maſter; becauſe this negligence happened in his ſervice: otherwiſe, if the ſervant, going along the ſtreet with a torch, by negligence ſets fire to a houſe; for there he is not in his maſter's immediate ſervice; and muſt himſelf anſwer the damage perſonally. But now the common law is, in the former caſe, altered by ſtatute 6 Ann. c. 3. which ordains that no action ſhall be maintained againſt any, in whoſe houſe or chamber any fire ſhall accidentally begin; for their own loſs is ſufficient puniſhment for their own or their ſervants careleſſneſs. But if ſuch fire happens through negligence of any ſervant (whoſe loſs is commonly very little) ſuch ſervant ſhall forfeit 100 *l.* to be diſtributed among the ſufferers; and, in default of payment, ſhall be committed to ſome workhouſe, and there kept to hard labour for eighteen months. A maſter is laſtly, chargeable if any of his family layeth or caſteth any thing out of his houſe into the ſtreet or common highway, to the damage of any individual, or the common nuiſance of his majeſty's liege people: for the maſter has the ſuperintendence and charge of all his houſehold. And this alſo agrees with the civil law; which holds that the *pater familias*, in this and ſimilar caſes, "*obalterius culpam tenetur, ſive ſervi liberi.*" We may obſerve, that in all the caſes here put, the maſter may be frequently a loſer by the truſt repoſed in his ſervant, but never can be a gainer; he may frequently be anſwerable for his ſervants miſbehaviour, but never can ſhelter himſelf from puniſhment by laying the blame on his agent. The reaſon of this is ſtill uniform and the ſame; that the wrong done by the ſervant is looked upon in law as the wrong of the maſter himſelf; and it is a ſtanding maxim, that no man ſhall be allowed to make any advantage of his own wrong. If a man intice

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away the ſervant of another; an action againſt him will lie at the ſuit of the firſt maſter.

TESTIMONIAL. No ſervant retained in huſbandry, or in any of the arts mentioned in the ſtatute of Elizabeth, after the time of his retainer expired, ſhall depart from one city, town, or pariſh, to another; nor out of the lathe, rape, wapentake, or hundred; nor out of the county where he laſt ſerved, to ſerve in any other city, town corporate, lathe, rape, wapentake, hundred or county; unleſs he have a teſtimonial under the ſeal of the ſaid city or town corporate, or of the conſtable or other head officer, and of two other honeſt houſeholders of the city, town, or pariſh, where he laſt ſerved, importing that he is licenſed to depart, and at liberty to ſerve elſewhere. This teſtimonial is to be delivered to the ſervant, and alſo regiſtered by the miniſter of the pariſh where the maſter dwells, taking twopence for the ſame; and no perſon that ſhall depart out of a ſervice, ſhall be retained or accepted into any other ſervice, without ſhewing (before his retainer) ſuch teſtimonial to the chief officer of the town corporate, and in every other town and place, to the conſtable, curate, church-warden, or other head officer; upon pain that every ſuch ſervant ſo departing without ſuch teſtimonial, ſhall be impriſoned till he procure one; which if he cannot do in twenty-one days, he ſhall be whipped and uſed as a vagabond, according to the laws in ſuch caſe provided; and every perſon retaining ſuch ſervant, without ſhewing ſuch teſtimonial, ſhall forfeit 5 *l*, half to the king, and half to him that ſhall ſue in the ſeſſions, or other court of record; and if any ſuch perſon be taken with a counterfeit teſtimonial, then to be whipped as a vagabond. If ſervants run away into another county, they may be retaken by warrant and put in priſon, till they find ſecurity well and honeſtly to ſerve their maſters.

ASSAULTS. A ſervant, workman, or labourer, making an aſſault upon his maſter or miſtreſs, or any other perſon having overſight over him or his work, is to be committed to priſon for a year or leſs, or in aggravated caſes, to ſuffer ſuch further puniſhment, not extending to life or limb, as the juſtices in ſeſſion ſhall think convenient. The maſter is allowed by law, with moderation, to chaſtiſe his ſervant being under age: a ſervant too may juſtify an aſſault in defence of his maſter, but not a maſter in defence of his ſervant; becauſe he might have an action for the loſs of his ſervice.

DISPUTES. The relation between maſter and ſervant has occaſioned the enactment of many laws for reſtraining the frauds and injuries which the ſervant has ſo many opportunities of committing,

committing, though theſe are framed with a tender regard to the weakneſs of human nature expoſed to great and frequent temptations. Diſputes between maſters and workmen are alſo the objects of many ſtatutes which it would be tedious here to enumerate. They regard the maſters and workmen in ſilk, cloth, woollen, linen, fuſtian, leather, cotton, bone and thread lace, the manufacturers of clocks and watches, and paper, as well as thoſe employed in huſbandry, artificers, handicraftsmen, miners, colliers, keelmen, pitmen, glaſſmen, potters, and other labourers. There are alſo ſeparate laws for regulating taylors, and ſhoemakers, and their workmen, within the bills of mortality; an abſtract of them all will be found in Burn's Juſtice; article Servants.

Combinations. By 39 and 40 Geo. III. c. 106, the 39 Geo. III. c. 81; for preventing unlawful combinations of workmen is repealed. It is enacted that all contracts, covenants, and agreements, whether in writing or not, entered into by any journeymen, manufacturers, or other perſons, for obtaining an advance of wages, or for leſſening or altering their uſual hours or time of working, or decreaſing the quantity of work (except any contract made between any maſter and his workmen on account of his work or ſervice), or for hindering any perſon from employing whomſoever he may think proper, or for controlling, or any way affecting any perſon carrying on any manufacture, trade, or buſineſs, in the conduct or management thereof, ſhall be illegal, null, and void, to all intents and purpoſes whatſoever. Journeymen workmen and others making ſuch contracts, may be committed by two juſtices to goal not exceeding three, or to the Houſe of Correction, not exceeding two calendar months. Journeymen or workmen entering into combinations for ſuch purpoſes, or who ſhall by giving money, or by perſuaſion, ſolicitation, or intimidation, or any other means, wilfully and maliciouſly endeavour to prevent any unhired, or unemployed workman in any manufacture, trade or buſineſs or any other perſon wanting employment therein, from hiring himſelf to any manufacturer, tradeſman, or perſon conducting any manufacture, trade, or buſineſs; or who ſhall for the purpoſe of obtaining an advance of wages, or for any other purpoſe, contrary to the proviſions of this act, wilfully and maliciouſly decoy, perſuade, ſolicit, intimidate, influence, or prevail, or attempt to prevail, on any journeyman or workman, or other perſon hired or employed in any ſuch manafacture, trade or buſineſs, to leave the ſame; or who ſhall wilfully and maliciouſly hinder, or prevent any manufacturer, tradeſman, or other perſon, from employing any ſuch workman as he ſhall think proper; or who, being hired or employed, ſhall, without

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any juſt or reaſonable cauſe refuſe to work with any other journeyman or workman employed to work therein; ſhall be committed to gaol not exceeding three months, or to the Houſe of Correction to hard labour not exceeding two calendar months. And every perſon (whether employed in any manufacture or not) who ſhall attend any meeting held for the purpoſe of entering into any contract, covenant, or agreement hereby declared illegal; or who ſhall ſummon, give notice to, call upon, perſuade, entice, ſolicit, or by intimidation, or any other means, endeavour to induce any journeyman, workman, or other perſon employed in any manufacture, trade or buſineſs, to attend any ſuch meeting; or who ſhall collect, demand, aſk, or recieve any money from any ſuch workman, or other perſon, for any of the purpoſes aforeſaid; or who ſhall perſuade, entice, ſolicit, or by intimidation or any other means, endeavour to induce any ſuch journeyman, workman, or other perſon to enter into, or be concerned in any ſuch combination; or who ſhall pay any money, or enter into any ſubſcription or contribution for the ſupport or encouragement of any ſuch illegal meeting or combination; and who ſhall be convicted thereof, on confeſſion, or on the oath of one witneſs, before two juſtices, within three calendar months, ſhall be ſubject to ſimilar puniſhment. Perſons giving money as a ſubſcription or contribution to pay expenſes incurred contrary to this act, or maintaining any workman or other perſon offending, to forfeit not exceeding 10 *l.* and thoſe who receive, not exceeding 5 *l.*, and on non payment, the parties to be impriſoned as before mentioned. All money given as a ſubſcription or contribution for ſuch purpoſes to be forfeited; half to the king, and half to the informer; and thoſe who hold the money in their hands muſt make diſcovery on oath.

All contracts between maſters or other perſons for reducing the wages of workmen, or for altering the uſual hours of work, or for increaſing the quantity of work, ſhall be void; and every maſter being thereof convicted, by the oath of one witneſs, before two juſtices, within three calendar months, ſhall forfeit 20 *l.*; half to the king, and the other half in equal ſhares to the informer and the poor, or be committed to gaol or the Houſe of Correction not more than three nor leſs than two months.

The ſame ſtatutes alſo eſtabliſh a very beneficial mode of terminating diſputes between maſters and their workmen, by arbitration, the ſubmiſſion to which, with the award or umpirage may be on unſtamped paper.

Bills of Exchange. Under this head it is intended to give a brief account of this moſt uſeful ſpecies of currency, in its various branches, without entering into thoſe technical explanations,

nations, and detailing the numerous deciſions which form the ſubject of many ample treatiſes.

Foreign Bills. The cuſtom of merchants in relation to foreign bills of exchange, ſeems to have prevailed time out of mind; and was at firſt introduced for the expedition of trade and its ſafety, and to prevent the exportation of money out of the realm; and has therefore been always countenanced and encouraged, as a matter of great eaſe and advantage to trade, and is now become part of the law of the land; and as bills of exchange are eſtabliſhed merely by the cuſtom of merchants, and for their benefit; ſo their rules and cuſtoms are allowed to preſcribe their form and ſeveral properties, as to their creating engagements on the parties that are concerned in them. By this cuſtom, if a merchant abroad draw a bill on a merchant here, or *vice verſa*, requeſting him to pay a certain ſum of money, and the drawer ſet his name to it; this amounts to a promiſe to pay, and ſubjects him, though it is but a collateral engagement, to an action on the non payment. And if the drawee, or he on whom the bill is drawn, refuſe to accept, or, having accepted it, refuſe to pay it, the payee, or he in whoſe favour it is drawn, may proteſt it, and ſhall recover againſt the drawer, not only the principal ſum, but likewiſe all intereſt, coſts and damages, by reaſon of the proteſt or refuſal of acceptance, or payment of the money.

But though the cuſtom of merchants, in relation to bills of exchange, is eſtabliſhed by common law, and ſuch bills being ſecurities for money, are of great credit among them; yet are they not allowed to be ſecurities of as high a nature as bonds or ſpecialties; and therefore it has been adjudged, that a bill of exchange is within the ſtatute of limitations, and muſt be ſued for within ſix years after it becomes payable. Alſo, a bill of exchange is to be conſidered as a ſimple contract debt in a courſe of adminiſtration, which an executor or an adminiſtrator cannot diſcharge before debts by bond. But bills of exchange and promiſſory notes, though, according to the general principles of the law, they are to be conſidered only as evidence of a ſimple contract, are yet ſo far regarded as ſpecialities, that unleſs the contrary be ſhewn by the defendant, they are always preſumed to have been made on a good conſideration; nor is it incumbent on the plaintiff, either to ſhew a conſideration in his declaration, or to prove it at the trial. Foreign bills were always intitled to this privilege; but it was not without a conſiderable ſtruggle that it was extended to inland bills; and notes were indebted for it to the ſtatute of Queen Anne.

Usance. Bills of exchange are uſually drawn payable on ſight, or after date, or on ſingle, double, or treble uſances.

An uſance is ſaid to be regularly a month; but yet varies according to the cuſtom of particular countries; uſance between London and any part of France, is thirty days after date.—Between London and the following places; Hamburgh, Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Middleburg, Antwerp, Brabant, Zealand and Flanders, one calendar month after the date of the bill. Between London and Spain and Portugal, two calendar months.—Between London and Genoa, Leghorn, Milan, Venice, and Rome, three calendar months.—The uſance of Amſterdam on Italy, Spain, and Portugal, is two months.—On France, Flanders, Brabant, and on any place in Holland or Zealand, one month.—On Frankfort, Nuremberg, Vienna, and other places in Germany, on Hamburg and Breſlaw, fourteen days after ſight, two uſances twenty-eight days, and half uſance ſeven.—Half uſance when the uſance is one month, ſhall contain fifteen days, notwithſtanding the inequality in the length of the months.

Sets of Bills. It is frequent to draw two or three for the ſame ſum, and of the ſame date, for fear of loſs or miſcarriage, which carry a condition with them that only one ſhall be paid.

Payment. Where the time, after the expiration of which a bill is made payable, is limited by months, it muſt be computed by calendar, not lunar months: thus, on a bill dated the firſt of January, and payable one month after date, the month expires on the firſt of February. Where a bill is payable ſo many days after ſight, or from the date, the day of preſentment or of the date is excluded. Thus, where a bill, payable ten days after ſight, is preſented on the firſt day of a month, the ten days expire on the eleventh; where it is dated the firſt, and payable twenty days after date, theſe expire on the twenty firſt. Where there is no date, and the payment is directed to be made ſo many days after date, the date is taken to be the day on which it iſſued.

Grace. A cuſtom has obtained among merchants, that a perſon to whom a bill is addreſſed, ſhall be allowed a little time for payment, beyond the term mentioned in the bill, called days of grace. But the number of theſe days varies according to the cuſtom of different places.

Great Britain, *Ireland*, *Bergamo*, and *Vienna*, three days.

Frankfort, out of the time of the fair, four days.

Leipſick, *Naumburg*, and *Augſburg*, five days.

Venice, *Amſterdam*, *Rotterdam*, *Middleburg*, *Antwerp*, *Cologn*, *Breſlaw*, *Nuremburg*, and *Portugal*, ſix days.

Dantzick, *Koningſburg*, and *France*, ten days.

Humburgh and *Stockholm*, twelve days.

Naples

Naples eight, *Spain* fourteen, *Rome* fifteen, and *Genoa* thirty days.

Leghorn, *Milan*, and ſome other places in *Italy*, no fixed number.

Sundays and holidays are included in the reſpite days at London, Naples, Amſterdam, Rotterdam, Antwerp, Middleburg, Dantzick, Koningſburg, and France; but not at Venice, Cologn, Breſlaw, and Nuremburg. At Hamburgh, the day on which the bill falls due makes one of the days of grace, but it is not ſo elſewhere. In England, if the laſt of the three days happen to be on Sunday, the bill is to be paid on the Saturday; or if on Good Friday or other great holiday, on the preceding day; but bills payable at ſight, are to be paid without any days of grace.

Inland Bills. Inland bills of exchange are thoſe drawn by one merchant reſiding in one part of the kingdom, on another reſiding in ſome city or town within the ſame kingdom; and theſe alſo being found uſeful to trade and commerce, have been eſtabliſhed on the ſame foot with foreign bills.

Promissory Notes. The increaſe of trade and neceſſity of paper credit, put bankers and others upon an expedient of bringing promiſſory notes within the cuſtom of merchants, and making them negotiable, as inland bills of exchange; but this the judges would not admit of, promiſſory notes being only conſidered, by the common law, as evidences of a debt, and not aſſignable or negotiable in their own nature. This defect was however remedied by a ſtatute of Queen Anne, which enables them to be transferred by indorſement. A promiſſory note, in its original form of a promiſe from one man to pay a ſum of money to another, bears no reſemblance to a bill of exchange. When it is indorſed, the reſemblance begins, for then it is an order by the indorſer to the maker of the note, who, by his promiſe, is his debtor, to pay the money to the indorſee. This is the exact definition of a bill of exchange. The indorſer of the note correſponds to the drawer of the bill; the maker to the drawer or acceptor; and the indorſer to the payer, or party to whom the bill is made payable. When this point of reſemblance is once fixed, the law is fully ſettled to be exactly the ſame in bills of exchange and promiſſory notes: and as ſome confuſion has ariſen in the books from an inattention to the real analogy between them, it may be proper to obſerve, that whenever the law is reported to have been ſettled with reſpect to the acceptor of a bill, it is to be conſidered as applicable to the drawer, or as he may, with more propriety, be called, the maker of a note; when with reſpect to the drawer of a bill, then to the firſt indorſer of the note: the ſubſequent

indorſers and indorſees bear an exact reſemblance to one another.

Stamps. Till the 23 Geo. III. theſe notes and bills were written on a plain piece of paper unſtamped: by a ſtatute made in that year, certain duties were impoſed on every piece of vellum, parchment, or paper, on which bills and notes, falling under certain deſcriptions, ſhould be written, engroſſed, or printed; theſe have been ſince much augmented, and the frauds and evaſions being prevented, the duty on inland bills and negotiable notes has become a moſt productive ſource of revenue.

Small Notes. It having been found by experience, that trade and commerce ſuffered materially from the circulation of bills, notes, and drafts for very ſmall ſums, which paſſed as caſh, and many of them being made payable under certain terms and reſtrictions with which the poorer ſort of manufacturers, artificers, labourers, and others could not comply, without ſubjecting themſelves to great extortion and abuſe, the legiſlature has thought proper to lay certain reſtraints on bills or other notes under a limited ſum; and therefore by 15. Geo. III. c. 51, all notes and bills for the payment of any ſum under twenty ſhillings, which had been iſſued *before* the 24th of June 1775, were made payable on demand. Notes and bills for leſs than twenty ſhillings, iſſued *after* the 24th of June, 1775, are declared void. And any perſon publiſhing or uttering ſuch bills or notes, or in any manner engaged in the negotiation of them, is liable to a penalty of not more than 20 *l.* nor leſs than 5 *l.*, to be recovered and applied in the manner pointed out by the act, which was to continue for five years. The good effects of this act being found, further proviſions for the ſame purpoſe were made by another; 17 Geo. III. c. 30. All promiſſory or other notes, bills of exchange, or drafts, or undertakings in writing, being negotiable or transferable, for the payment of twenty ſhillings, or for any ſum of money above that ſum and leſs than 5 *l.* or on which 20 *s.*, or above that ſum, and leſs than 5 *l.* ſhould remain undiſcharged, iſſued after the firſt of January 1778, muſt ſpecify the names and places of abode of the perſons reſpectively to whom or to whoſe order they ſhall be made payable; and ſhall bear date before or at the time of drawing or iſſuing them, and not on any ſubſequent day; ſhall be made payable within the ſpace of twenty-one days next after the day of the date; and ſhall nor be transferable or negotiable after the time limited for the payment: and every indorſement ſhall be made before the expiration of that time, and bear date at or before the time of making it, and ſhall ſpecify the name and place of abode of the perſon or perſons to whom

whom, or to whoſe order the money is to be paid: and the ſigning of every ſuch note, &c., and alſo every indorſement, ſhall be atteſted by one ſubſcribing witneſs at the leaſt; and all notes, &c. of the above deſcription not having theſe requiſites ſhall be utterly void. The ſame penalties, recoverable in the ſame way as in the former act, are impoſed on every one uttering, publiſhing, or negotiating ſuch notes, &c. without the requiſites preſcribed. And all negotiable notes, &c. iſſued before the firſt of January, for any ſum between the ſum of 20 *s.* and 5 *l.*, or on which 20 *s.* or leſs than 5 *l.* remained undiſcharged, are made payable on demand, and this act and the former act are continued not only for the reſidue of the five years of the former, but alſo for other five years. And by a ſubſequent ſtatute, both the former are made perpetual.

LIABILITY TO PAY. Every drawer of a bill is liable to the payment thereof, as is every acceptor and indorſer: alſo, if there are ſeveral indorſers of the ſame bill, the laſt indorſer may bring his action againſt the firſt indorſer, or any of them; for the indorſement is *quaſi* a new bill, or at leaſt a warranty, as ſome books expreſs it, by the indorſer, that the bill ſhall be paid. But though the drawer, acceptor, and indorſer, are all liable, yet the party can have but one ſatisfaction: but, until ſuch ſatisfaction is actually had, he may ſue all, or any of them. Neither is the engagement of an indorſer diſcharged by an effectual *execution* againſt the drawer, or any prior or ſubſequent indorſer.

INDORSEMENT. Indorſement is a term known in law, which, by the cuſtom of merchants, tranſfers the property of the bill or note to the indorſee; and is uſually made on the back of the bill, and muſt be in writing; but the law has not appropriated any ſet form of words, as neceſſary to this ceremony; and therefore it has been held, that if a man write on the back of a bill of exchange; *This is to be paid to* J. S., or, *The contents of this bill is to be paid to* J. S., and ſet his hand to it, this is a good indorſement. But theſe ſpecial or preciſe indorſements are only neceſſary where the maker of them wiſhes to limit the payment for ſome particular reaſon, otherwiſe it is uſual to tranſfer notes and bills by writing on them the name of the payee, only, and this is called indorſing in blank. On a bill ſpecially indorſed, the perſon named in the indorſement alone can recover, unleſs he has indorſed it over, but on a bill indorſed in blank, any holder may recover, even though it may have paſſed through many intermediate hands without their indorſement. A bill payable to a man's order is payable to himſelf, and he may bring an action thereon.

A bill or note may be indorſed at any time after it has iſſued, even after the day of payment. However, the indorſement of a note after it is due, throws a degree of ſuſpicion upon it, and in an action againſt the maker by the indorſer, the former is in ſuch a caſe intitled to go into evidence to ſhew, that the note has been paid as between him and the indorſer.

ACCEPTANCE. An acceptance, by the cuſtom of merchants, as effectually binds the acceptor, as if he had been the original drawer; and having once accepted it, he cannot afterwards revoke it. And it is ſaid, that a very ſmall matter will amount to an acceptance; and that any words will be ſufficient for that purpoſe, which ſhew the party's aſſent or agreement to pay the bill; as, if upon the tender thereof to him, he ſubſcribes, *accepted*; or, *accepted by me* A. B.; or, *I accept the bill, and will pay it according to the contents*; theſe clearly amount to an acceptance. So if the party underwrites the bill preſented ſuch a day, or only the day of the month; this is ſuch an acknowledgment of the bill as amounts to an acceptance. So if the party ſays, *leave your bill with me, and I will accept it*; or, *call for it to-morrow, and it ſhall be accepted*; theſe words, according to the cuſtom of merchants, as effectually bind, as if he had actually ſigned or ſubſcribed his name according to the uſual manner. But if a man ſays, *leave your bill with me, I will look over my accounts and books between the drawer and me, and call to-morrow, and accordingly the bill ſhall be accepted*; this does not amount to a complete acceptance; for the mention of his books and accounts ſhews plainly that he intended only to accept the bill, in caſe he had effects of the drawer's in his hands. But where the drawer wrote a letter to the perſon, in whoſe favour the bill was drawn, to this purport, *that if he would let him write to* Ireland *firſt, he would pay him*; this was held a good acceptance. So, where a foreign bill was drawn on the defendant, and being returned for want of acceptance, defendant ſaid, that if the bill came back again he would pay it; this was ruled a good acceptance. It ſeems clear that a parol acceptance is ſufficient at common law to charge the acceptor; alſo it has been adjudged, ſince the ſtatute 3 and 4 Ann. c. 9. that an indorſee of an inland bill of exchange may maintain an action againſt the acceptor, on a parol acceptance, as to the principal ſum, though not as to intereſt and coſts; for the act being made to give a further remedy for intereſt, damages, and coſts againſt the drawer, cannot be ſuppoſed to take any advantage from the payee which he had before; and therefore the true conſtruction of the act is, that to charge the drawer with intereſt and coſts, the drawee

must

muſt refuſe to accept it in writing; nevertheleſs, if he accepts the bill by parol, he is liable to the principal ſum in the bill, as he would have been before the act.

A bill drawn on two, muſt regularly have a joint acceptance; but if there are two joint traders, and one accepts a bill drawn on both, for him and partner, this ſhall bind both, if it concerns the trade; otherwiſe, if it concerns the acceptor only in a diſtinct intereſt and reſpect. If a book-keeper or ſervant, having authority, or uſually tranſacting buſineſs of this nature for his maſter, accept a bill of exchange, this ſhall bind his maſter.

It is held that an acceptance may be qualified, as thus; I accept this bill, half to be paid in money, and half in bills; and this is good by the cuſtom of merchants; for he who may refuſe the bill totally, may accept it in part; but he, to whom the bill is due, may refuſe ſuch acceptance, and proteſt it ſo as to charge the drawer. Alſo it is ſaid, that after ſuch acceptance and refuſal of payment, he has the ſame liberty of charging the drawer, which he had in caſe the bill had been accepted abſolutely, and payment refuſed. So, the drawee may accept the bill, to pay it at a longer day than that on which it is made payable, and this ſhall bind him; but herein care muſt be taken, that the drawee, by ſuch acceptance or agreement, be not a ſufferer. The acceptance may direct the payment to be made at a place different from that mentioned in the bill, as, at the houſe of a banker; in which caſe, if the holder neglect to demand payment within a reaſonable time, and the banker afterwards fail, he muſt ſtand to the loſs. But if the banker continue ſolvent, the holder is not bound to prove a demand on the banker in an action againſt the acceptor. If the acceptance be in writing, and the drawee intend that it ſhould be only conditional, he muſt be careful to expreſs the condition in writing as well as the acceptance; for if the acceptance ſhould, on the face of it, appear to be abſolute, he cannot take advantage of any verbal condition annexed to it, if the bill ſhould be negotiated and come to the hands of a perſon unacquainted with the condition, and even againſt the perſon to whom the verbal condition was expreſſed, the burden of proof will be on the acceptor.

The effect of the acceptance is to give credit to the bill, and to render the acceptor liable according to the tenor of his acceptance; the very act of acceptance implies an acknowledgment that he has effects of the drawer in his hands. If therefore the drawee accepts a bill generally, and by reaſon of his non-payment, the drawer is obliged to pay it, the latter, as drawer, may maintain an action againſt him, not only for the

principal ſum, but in caſe of a proteſt, for damages, intereſt, and coſts. If indeed the drawee have no effects of the drawer in his hands, and notwithſtanding accept the bill, he has his remedy, if he pay it, againſt the drawer, but with regard to every body beſides, the acceptor is conſidered as the original debtor, and to be intitled to have recourſe againſt him, it is not neceſſary for the holder to ſhew notice given to him of non-payment by any other perſon. When a bill is once accepted abſolutely, it cannot in any caſe be revoked, and the acceptor is at all events bound, though he hear of the drawer's having failed the next moment, even if the failure was before the acceptance. The acceptor may be diſcharged by an expreſs declaration of the holder, or by ſomething equivalent to ſuch declaration. But no circumſtances of indulgence ſhewn to the acceptor by the holder, nor any attempt by him to recover of the drawer, will amount to an expreſs declaration of diſcharge. Neither will any length of time ſhort of the ſtatute of limitation, nor the receipt of part of the money from the drawer or indorſer, nor a promiſe by indorſement on the bill by the drawer to pay the reſidue, diſcharge the holder's remedy againſt the acceptor.

Protest. A proteſt is made for non-acceptance, non-payment, and alſo for better ſecurity. This laſt is uſual, when a merchant, who has accepted a bill, happens to become inſolvent, or is publicly reported to have failed in his credit, or abſents himſelf from change before the bill he has accepted has become due, or when the holder has any reaſon to ſuppoſe it will not be paid; in ſuch caſes he may cauſe a notary to demand better ſecurity, and on that being refuſed, make proteſt for want of it; which proteſt muſt, as in other caſes, be ſent away by the next poſt, that the remitter or drawer may take the proper means to procure better ſecurity.

In making a proteſt there are three things to be done; the noting, demanding, and drawing up the proteſt: but the noting is unknown in the law, as diſtinguiſhed from the proteſt; it is merely a preliminary ſtep, and has grown into practice only in modern times. The party making the demand, muſt have authority to receive the money, and in caſe that be refuſed, the drawing up of the proteſt is mere matter of form, the demand being the material part. The noting is a minute made by the officer upon the bill itſelf, in conſequence of the drawee's refuſing to accept or pay, as the caſe may be, conſiſting of his (the officer's) initials, the month, the day, and the year, with his charges for minuting. The proteſt itſelf is a ſolemn declaration afterwards drawn up by the officer, that the bill has been preſented for acceptance or payment, which was refuſed, and

preſented

that the holder intends to recover all damages, which he, or the deliverer of the money to the drawer, may ſuſtain on account of the non-acceptance.

A proteſt does not raiſe any debt, but only ſerves to give formal notice, that the bill is not accepted, or accepted and not paid; and this by the common law was, and is ſtill neceſſary on every foreign bill, before the drawer can be charged; but it was not required on any inland bill, before the ſtatute of 9 and 10 W. III. c. 17; nor does the want of it ſince that ſtatute deſtroy the remedy which the party had before againſt the drawer, but only deprives him of intereſt and coſts againſt the drawer, unleſs there be notice by proteſt, as that ſtatute preſcribes. The proteſt is uſually made by ſome public notary, and ſuch proteſt is *primâ facie*, good evidence that the bill was not accepted, that it was not paid, and ſufficient to put the proof on the other ſide. The demand of payment of a *foreign* bill muſt be made by the notary public himſelf, and not by his clerk; and even in the caſe of an *inland* bill, it is doubtful, whether the demand, as the foundation of the proteſt made in conſequence of the ſtatute, of W. III. above-mentioned, can be made by the notary's clerk, or by any other perſon than the notary himſelf.

NOTICE. A proteſt on a foreign bill of exchange is abſolutely neceſſary to entitle the party to recover againſt the drawer, not only intereſt and coſts, but likewiſe the principal ſum; and for this purpoſe the bill muſt be preſented in a reaſonable time; and in caſe of refuſal of acceptance, or in caſe the drawee cannot be found, it muſt be proteſted in reaſonable time, and notice of ſuch proteſt, as alſo notice of a proteſt after acceptance and non-payment given to the drawer in a reaſonable time; for though the drawer is bound to the party to whom the bill is payable, till payment be actually made; yet it is with this condition and proviſo, ſays Molloy, that proteſt be made in due time, and a lawful and ingenuous diligence uſed for obtaining payment of the money. And the reaſon hereof is, that the drawer might have had effects, or other means of his, upon whom he drew, to reimburſe himſelf the bill, which ſince, for want of timely notice, he has remitted or loſt, and it were unreaſonable he ſhould ſuffer through the holder's neglect. But as to the exact time therein, the law has not determined it, but the ſame is to be left to a jury, who are to govern themſelves according to the cuſtoms of merchants in theſe caſes, and the uſuages of particular countries.

As to inland bills, though a proteſt was not neceſſary by the common law, in order to ſue the drawer, and is only now neceſſary by the ſtatute 9 and 10 W. III. c. 17. and 3 and 4

Ann. c. 9. to entitle the party to intereſt and coſts: yet convenient notice muſt be given by the party, to whom the bill is payable to the drawer, of the drawee's refuſal of payment, and if any damages accrue to the drawer for want of ſuch notice, it muſt be borne by the perſon to whom the bill is payable. The period of time within which bills are to be preſented, are however ſtill unfixed. The only rule that can be applied is, that due diligence muſt be uſed. Due diligence is the only thing to be looked at, whether the bill be foreign or inland, whether it be payable at ſight, or ſo many days after, or in any other manner. It is not enough to ſay in the notice, that the drawee or maker refuſes, is inſolvent, or has abſconded; but it muſt be added, that the holder does not intend to give him credit. The purpoſe of giving notice is not merely that the indorſer ſhould know that default has been made, for he is chargeable only in a ſecondary degree; but to render him liable, it muſt be ſhewn that the holder looked to him for payment, and gave him notice that he did ſo.

BANKRUPTS. The information on this ſubject will be extracted entirely from Mr. Cooke's treatiſe on the bankrupt laws, a work ſo copious and able, that it ſuperſedes the neceſſity of further reſearch.

The word *bankrupt* has been variouſly derived by different authors; Sir Edward Coke deriving it from *banque* and *route*, which ſignifies a trace or tract; ſo that, according to him, it means one whoſe bank is removed, and but a mark or trace left behind. But Mr. Juſtice Blackſtone derives it from the word *bancus* or *banque*, which ſignifies the table or counter of a tradeſman, and *ruptus*, broken, denoting thereby one whoſe ſhop or place of trade is broken and gone; at the ſame time he takes notice of ſir Edward Coke's derivation, and further obſerves, that the title of the firſt Engliſh ſtatute concerning this offence, "againſt ſuch as do make bankrupt," is a literal tranſlation of the *French* idiom, *qui font banque route* *.

The laws of England, cautious of encouraging prodigality and extravagance, allow the benefit of the bankrupt ſtatutes to none but actual traders; but as trade cannot be carried on without mutual credit, the contracting of debts to facilitate commerce, is not only juſtifiable, but neceſſary: and if, by accidental calamities, a merchant or trader becomes incapable of diſcharging his own debts, it is his misfortune, and not his fault. To the misfortune therefore of debtors, the law has given a compaſſionate remedy, but denied it to their faults; ſince at the ſame time that it provides for the ſecurity of commerce, by

* This derivation is however very old, being decided by Babelais as fanciful and ridiculous.

enacting

enacting that every trader may be declared a bankrupt for the benefit of his creditors as well as himſelf, it has alſo to diſcourage extravagance, declared, that no one ſhall be capable of being made a bankrupt, but a trader; nor capable of receiving the full benefit of the ſtatutes, but an honeſt trader. All the acts concerning bankrupts make but one ſyſtem of law, they are therefore to be taken together, and to be conſtrued favourably for the benefit of creditors, and to ſuppreſs fraud; for though a bankrupt was formerly conſidered merely in the light of a criminal, and therefore a ſtrict conſtruction might be expected, in conformity to the univerſal practice of deciding upon penal ſtatutes; at preſent the laws of bankruptcy are conſidered as laws calculated for the benefit of trade, and founded on principles of humanity, as well as juſtice. The firſt ſtatute noticing the crime of bankruptcy, was made againſt the Lombards, who, after they had made obligations to their creditors, ſuddenly eſcaped out of the realm; it was therefore enacted, "that if any merchant of the company acknowledge himſelf bound in that manner, that then the company ſhall anſwer the debt; ſo that another merchant, who is not of the company, ſhall not be thereby aggrieved nor impeached." But the firſt ſtatute made concerning any Engliſh bankrupts, was 34 Henry VIII. which has been much altered by 13 Eliz. and other ſubſequent ſtatutes.

The Commission.—The Lord Chancellor, Lord Keeper, or Lords Commiſſioners of the great ſeal, by the ſtatutes concerning bankrupts, being authoriſed to iſſue a commiſſion of bankrupt; when a creditor finds himſelf under the neceſſity of obtaining ſuch a commiſſion, he muſt proceed to ſtrike a *docket*; which is done by making an affidavit of his debt, and executing a bond to the great ſeal. But this will not prevent the iſſuing of another commiſſion, on the petition of another creditor, unleſs the party ſtriking the firſt docket ſeals his commiſſion, if to be executed in London, in fourteen days, or in the country, in twenty-eight days. Formerly, a practice of entering caveats in the ſecretary of bankrupt's office prevailed, but they have fallen into diſuſe, ſince lord Hardwicke expreſſed his diſapprobation of them, becauſe by that means, an opportunity was given to perſons againſt whom the commiſſion was to be taken out, to make away with their effects. The commiſſion of bankrupt muſt be founded on a petition, which, when ſupported by a proper affidavit of a debt, and the creditor entering into a bond as directed by ſtatute, the chancellor is bound to grant; for the granting a commiſſion is not diſcretionary, but a matter of right.

Its Effects. A commiſſion of bankrupt is conſidered as a ſtatute execution, and when it has iſſued and the party is declared a bankrupt, his death will not prevent the further execution of the commiſſion. So if there is a joint commiſſion againſt two partners, though one of them ſhould die, the commiſſion may ſtill proceed; but if one of the joint traders be dead at the time of taking out the commiſſion, it abates, and is abſolutely void, becauſe they muſt be each found bankrupt. And where a joint commiſſion is proſecuted, all the oſtenſible partners muſt be included, for a joint commiſſion againſt two or ſeveral partners cannot be ſuſtained. It was formerly the practice, where there were ſeveral partners to take out ſeparate commiſſions againſt each, as well as a joint commiſſion; but this has been ſince diſcountenanced; it being the common courſe of the court, upon petition, to make an order for the ſeparate creditors, to come in and prove their debts under the joint commiſſion, and that the aſſignees ſhould keep diſtinct accounts of the ſeveral eſtates. If a man who has once been a bankrupt has not obtained his certificate, a new commiſſion againſt him cannot be ſupported, for all the property he may poſſeſs, belongs to his firſt aſſignees.

Costs. By the 5 Geo. II. c. 30. § 25. the petitioning creditor is directed, at his own coſts, to proſecute the commiſſion until aſſignees ſhall be choſen, which coſts are to be aſcertained by the commiſſioners at the meeting for the choice of aſſignees, and are to be paid by the aſſignees to the petitioning creditor out of the firſt money or effects received or collected by them under the commiſſion.

The Debt. The petitioning creditor muſt have a *legal demand* to the amount of 100 *l.*; and if two creditors join in petitioning for a commiſſion, their debts muſt be 150 *l.*; or if three or more join, they muſt be creditors for 200 *l.*

Who may be bankrupts. Every perſon being a trader, and capable of making binding contracts, is liable to become a bankrupt; as a nobleman, member of the houſe of commons, clergyman, &c.; although againſt perſons having privilege of parliament, there may be ſome particular powers that commiſſioners of bankrupt cannot exerciſe. Infants and married women cannot be bankrupts; as to the latter, however, there are exceptions; for a *feme covert* in London, being a ſole trader according to the cuſtom, is liable to the commiſſion of bankrupt, and her ſeparate effects in trade, may be ſeized and applied to the payment of her own debts contracted in ſuch ſeparate trade. There is alſo another exception of a more doubtful nature, where a *feme covert* lives apart from her huſband,

band, acting as a *feme ſole*, he not being liable to her debts. If a woman under theſe circumſtances, not being the wife or daughter of a freeman of London, enters into trade, and contracts debts, it ſhould ſeem ſhe is liable to a commiſſion of bankrupt. A clergyman, if he trades, may become a bankrupt. The ſtatute of the 21 Hen. VIII. is rather in the nature of a prohibition, and a prohibition will not exempt him from being a bankrupt; for if a man with his eyes open will break the law, that does not make void the contract. A man cannot take advantage of the breach of one law, in order to avoid his being ſubject to another. A lunatic, while under the influence of that dreadful viſitation, cannot commit an act of bankruptcy.

Any merchant or other perſon uſing the trade of merchandize by way of bargaining, exchange, rechange, bartry, cheviſance, or otherwiſe, in groſs or retail, or ſeeking his trade, or living by buying or ſelling, may be bankrupt. Alſo bankers, brokers, factors, dealers in coals, ſcriveners, vintners, brickmakers, butchers, bakers, brewers, clothiers, goldſmiths, and dyers. Iron manufactures, who buy rod or bar iron, and cauſe it to be crooked up into wares, lockſmiths, milliners, nailors, plumbers, ſaleſmen, ſhoemakers, ſmiths, and tanners. When therefore it is laid down in the books that farmers, inn-keepers, &c. cannot be bankrupts, it muſt be underſtood in reſpect to that particular deſcription, and not as affording a protection, if in any other ſhape they may come within the bankrupt laws. To enumerate every trade, which is ſufficient to make a man a bankrupt, would be too tedious; the caſes are decided by principles that have weighed in adjudications, but a chapman, or one that buys or ſells any thing, though his dealings do not come under the denomination of any particular trade, may yet become a bankrupt.

In the interpretation of the bankrupt ſtatutes, it has been held, that the buying and ſelling there meant, is of perſons who attempt to gain a livelihood by a credit gained on an uncertain capital ſtock; but no handicraft occupation (where nothing is bought or ſold, and therefore an extenſive credit for the ſtock in trade, is not neceſſary to be had) will make a man a regular bankrupt. But when perſons purchaſe commodities for the purpoſe of manufacturing, and thereby making them more valuable, as ſhoemakers, ſmiths, and the like, here, though part of the gain is by bodily labour, and not by buying and ſelling, yet they are within the ſtatutes of bankrupt; for the labour is only in melioration of the commodity, and rendering it more fit for ſale. And upon this principle, a butcher has been held a trader within the ſtatutes; and this, though the court expreſſed themſelves very

very ſenſible of the inconvenience of extending the bankrupt laws to artificers, whoſe living is undoubtedly gotten by mechanichal labour, with a mixture of buying and ſelling. It has been decided, that a *ſhip carpenter* might be a bankrupt, although it has been queſtioned by other judges, whether a *carpenter* could; but according to the principles eſtabliſhed in the caſes before cited, the true diſtinction ſeems to be between a mere working carpenter, and one who buys timber and materials for carrying on his trade. A brick-maker it was ſaid, might be a bankrupt, becauſe the earth is manufactured and turned into quite another thing; but this doctrine has been much diſputed, and is not finally ſettled. A perſon who has dealt merely in running and ſmuggling of goods, though it is an offence, and contrary to an act of parliament, is ſtill a trader within the meaning of the bankrupt ſtatutes, and liable to a commiſſion. Lord Hardwicke was inclined to think a pawnbroker within the ſeveral ſtatutes concerning bankrupts. Drawing and redrawing bills of exchange may make a man liable to be a bankrupt.

One ſingle act of buying and ſelling will not make a man a bankrupt, but a repeated practice and endeavour to gain profit by it, is required. It was formerly held that to bring a party within the bankrupt laws, there muſt be ſuch a buying and ſelling in groſs or in retail, as was the party's principal means of living, but if the buying and ſelling was in proportion to any other way he had of living, then he might become a bankrupt. But in later caſes, it is eſtabliſhed, that the extent of the trading is not material, but that the true criterion is, whether the party means to ſell (with a view to profit) to any perſon who applies for the commodity in which he profeſſes to deal. The intention of the party to ſell generally to all cuſtomers, or as a favour to particular perſons, is a queſtion of fact to be left to the jury.

Buying and ſelling under particular reſtraint, and for particular purpoſes, is not a trading within the bankrupt ſtatutes; therefore a farmer who buys cattle for his farm, and afterwards ſells them again, cannot be a bankrupt. Nor a ſchool-maſter who buys books to ſell to his ſcholars; nor the owner of a mine who buys candles to ſell to his workmen. No farmer, grazier, or drover, can as ſuch be made bankrupt, nor the receiver-general of the taxes. A contract to victual the fleet, is no more than to table with a private man, which will never make a trader. The king's butler or ſteward, or any other officer is not a trader. The king's commiſſioners of excife, ſchool-keepers, and ſutlers of armies, butlers and ſtewards of inns of courts, and farmers of the cuſtoms, are not traders. An inn-keeper is not a trader within the bankrupt

bankrupt ſtatutes, for he deals under a reſtraint and particular limitation; he cannot refuſe to lodge travellers, and he is under the power of the juſtices of the peace in the place where his inn is ſituate; he does not deal upon contract as other traders do, for a judge of aſſize may ſet a price upon his goods, and if they ſhould ſet a price themſelves, if it is unreaſonable they may be indicted for extortion. What they buy is to a particular intent, for it is to ſpend in their houſes, and though they get their living by it, *ad plurimum*; for the greateſt part of their gains ariſes by lodgings, attendance, dreſſing of meats, and other neceſſaries for their gueſts. A victualler is to be conſidered in the ſame light as an inn-keeper in reſpect to the bankrupt laws; therefore a victualler who ſells liquor in his houſe, and only ſells them out of the houſe in ſmall retail quantities, as every publican does, is not liable to a commiſſion of bankrupt. The making of alum is not a trade within the bankrupt ſtatutes; the buying and ſelling land, or an intereſt in land, is not a buying and ſelling within the ſtatutes, which muſt be reſtrained to perſonal things. Buying and ſelling bank ſtock, or other government ſecurities, will not make a man a bankrupt, they not being goods, wares, or merchandize, within the intent of the ſtatute, by which a profit may be fairly made. A man who lives by buying only, or ſelling only, cannot be a bankrupt. Drawing and re-drawing bills of exchange for a particular purpoſe, is not a trading within the meaning of the bankrupt laws. A clerk in the cuſtoms, receiving debentures and diſcounting bills, is not a trader by ſo doing. The having a ſhare in a ſhip, if the owner does not freight it, will not make a man a bankrupt, any more than having a ſhare in a hackney coach, or letting horſes to hire. No member of the bank of England; of the Eaſt India; or Engliſh linen company; nor any perſon circulating exchequer bills; nor any adventurer in the royal fiſhing trade, or Guinea company; nor any member of the London Aſſurance or Royal Exchange, or South Sea companies, ſhall be deemed bankrupt on account of his ſtock in the ſaid companies.

Any perſon trading to England, whether native, denizen, or alien, though never reſident as a trader in England, may be a bankrupt, if he occaſionally comes to this country and commits an act of bankruptcy.

Acts of bankruptcy. Many of the acts of bankruptcy deſcribed in the ſtatutes are in themſelves equivocal, and capable of being explained by circumſtances; for to bring them within the purview and meaning of the ſtatutes, it is abſolutely neceſſary they ſhould be done to defraud and delay creditors

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from recovering their juſt debts. On each act therefore ſome general obſervations will be made.

Departing the realm. will not be an act of bankruptcy, unleſs done with a view of defrauding or delaying creditors; but if it appear that they are in fact delayed by ſuch abſence, it has been held that it will be the ſame as if the original departure were fraudulent. A trader going abroad, to avoid performing a duty, will not therefore be a bankrupt, as if it be to avoid an arreſt upon an *excommunicato capiendo*, or the ſervice of proceſs to enforce a decree in chancery, unleſs it be a decree for the payment of money; but if creditors, by ſuch abſence are delayed and defrauded, then it becomes an act of bankruptcy.

Beginning to keep houſe, or otherwiſe to abſent himſelf. Denial to a creditor is not itſelf an act of bankruptcy, but is *primâ facie* evidence of keeping houſe. But as the ſtatute requires it to be with an intent to delay or defraud creditors, the mere denial is therefore capable of being explained by circumſtances, ſuch as ſickneſs, company, buſineſs, or even the lateneſs of the hour. Neither will an order by the debtor to his ſervant to deny him to creditors be ſufficient without an actual denial. For where a tradeſman gave orders to his ſervant to deny him to creditors on the 26th of May, but was not actually denied till the 28th, the court held that the actual denial, and not the order to deny, conſtituted the act of bankruptcy. Any keeping houſe, or on board ſhip, for the purpoſe of delaying a creditor, even for a very ſhort time, will be an act of bankruptcy. A general denial will not be ſufficient, but it muſt be a denial to a creditor who has debt at that time due; for if he is only a creditor by a note payable at a future day, a denial to him will be no act of bankruptcy; the ſtatute requires a keeping houſe to defeat or delay creditors of their debts, which cannot be where the creditor has no debt due to demand. It has been held that a denial to a perſon coming on behalf of a creditor to demand a debt, will not be within the ſtatutes. A trader admitting a creditor who called for money, but leaving him under a falſe pretence of procuring it, is thereby guilty of an act of bankruptcy. It frequently happens that traders in declining circumſtances call their creditors together to inſpect their affairs, and determine whether a commiſſion ſhall iſſue againſt them or not, and if thought adviſable, it is uſual for the trader to deny himſelf to a creditor for the purpoſe of making an act of bankruptcy. However, it was formerly doubtful how far ſuch concerted denial would be an act of bankruptcy to affect the intereſt of third perſons. The ſtatute requires a denial with an intereſt, to

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delay or defraud the creditor, but it is clear that a denial by agreement cannot be ſaid to be with either of thoſe intents; and lord Mansfield, in Hooper *v.* Smith obſerved, he much doubted how far ſuch an act of bankruptcy, committed by conſent and agreement is valid, with reſpect to a third perſon, not privy to ſuch agreement, certainly, ſaid his lordſhip, the bankrupt himſelf, and all thoſe who came in under the commiſſion, are concluded to ſay any thing againſt it. But the relation of a commiſſion of bankrupt to the time of committing the act, though uſeful to prevent frauds, is ſufficiently hard already upon private perſons, and ought not to be extended further. An act of bankruptcy, in the eye of the law, is conſidered as a crime; but where is the crime of denying oneſelf to another, by previous conſent and agreement? and this point has been variouſly determined at *Niſi Prius*; for Mr. Juſtice Foſter held, that the bankrupt's being denied to the plaintiff's clerk (who was ſent to demand money in conſequence of an agreement made at a meeting of the creditors two hours before, at which the bankrupt and the plaintiff both were) was ſufficient. But Lee, Chief Juſtice, ruled, that a denial by agreement was no act of bankruptcy, and ſo the law ſeems to be now ſettled; accordingly, in an action of *trover* for goods taken in execution, the queſtion was as to the time of committing the act of bankruptcy. Buller Juſtice, who tried the cauſe, held, that if a man leagues with ſome of his creditors, and keeps houſe with intent to commit an act of bankruptcy, and is accordingly denied to one of ſuch creditors, it is fraudulent and not a good act of bankruptcy. But if the creditor calling be not a party to, nor acquainted with ſuch agreement, it ſhall not operate to his diſadvantage, and the denial ſhall be good evidence of an act of bankruptcy.

Departing from his dwelling-houſe, may become an act of bankruptcy or not, according to the motive by which the party is impelled; if it be done with a view of defrauding his creditors, or even delaying them, and his abſence but for a ſingle day, it will be an act of bankruptcy, and his very abſenting himſelf is ſufficient *primâ facie* evidence of an intention to defraud or delay his creditors; but it muſt be a voluntary abſenting, and not by means of an arreſt. And as keeping houſe to avoid performing a duty will not be an act of bankruptcy, ſo neither will the departing from his dwelling-houſe on the like occaſion; for it is the abſenting to avoid the payment of money which marks the inſolvency, and therefore becomes an act of bankruptcy; conſequently abſconding to avoid an attachment upon an award for not delivering of goods, is not an act of bankruptcy; but, on the other hand, abſcond-

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ing to avoid an attachment for non-payment of money in purſuance of an award is within the ſtatute.

Suffering himſelf to be outlawed. An outlawry in Ireland does not make one a bankrupt, but in the county palatine of Durham it does. However, an outlawry does not appear to be an act of bankruptcy, unleſs it be ſuffered with an intent to defraud creditors.

Yielding himſelf to priſon, is to be intended a voluntary yielding for *debt*; and if a perſon capable of paying will, notwithſtanding, from fraudulent motives, voluntarily go to priſon, it is an act of bankruptcy.

Willingly or fraudulently procuring his goods to be attached or ſequeſtered, which is a plain and direct endeavour to diſappoint the creditors of their ſecurity. But an attachment out of a court for default or laches is not an act of bankruptcy; nor if a man has a rectory impropriate, and the tithes are ſequeſtered for not repairing the chancel, will he thereby become a bankrupt. The attachment here meant, and which the legiſlature had in view, is that ſort of attachment, by which ſuits are commenced, as in London and other towns, where that ſpecies of proceſs is uſed; therefore a fraudulent judgment and execution ſued thereupon, was held not to be procuring goods to be attached within the words of this act.

Making any fraudulent grant or conveyance of his lands and tenements, goods or chattels, to the intent, or whereby, his creditors ſhall or may be defeated or delayed in the recovery of their juſt and true debts. A fraudulent grant, to come within the meaning of this ſtatute, muſt be by deed; therefore a fraudulent ſale of goods, not by deed, is no act of bankruptcy in itſelf; but being a ſcheme concerted at the eve of a bankruptcy, to cheat innocent perſons, in order to ſecure particular creditors, is ſuch a fraud as ſhall render the ſale void. A trader, before he becomes a bankrupt, may prefer one creditor, and may pay him his debt, or may make him a mortgage, with poſſeſſion delivered, or may aſſign parts of his effects; but a preference of one creditor to the reſt, by conveying by *deed* all his effects to him, is a fraud upon the whole bankrupt law; and an act of bankruptcy. An aſſignment by deed of part of a trader's effects will be good, if made *bonâ fide*, and poſſeſſion delivered; and indeed the not delivering poſſeſſion being only evidence of fraud, may be explained by circumſtances. But an aſſignment by deed of only part of a trader's effects to a fair creditor, will, notwithſtanding, if done in contemplation of bankruptcy, itſelf become the very act.

Procuring any protection, except ſuch as ſhall be lawfully protected, by privilege of parliament. If any one be protected as the king's

king's ſervant, it does not make him bankrupt. By the 7 Ann. c. 12. declaring the privilege of embaſſadors and their train, it is enacted, That no merchant, or other trader whatſoever within the deſcription of any of the ſtatutes againſt bankrupts, ſhall have any benefit by that act.

Being arreſted for debt, ſhall, after ſuch arreſt, lie in priſon two months, or more, upon that or any other arreſt or detention in priſon for debt. The arreſt muſt be lawful, and therefore an arreſt by an executor, before probate is not within the act. The ſtatute does not make the mere being arreſted an act of bankruptcy. The moſt ſubſtantial trader is liable to be arreſted; but the preſumption of inſolvency ariſes from his lying in priſon two months without being able to get bail; nor will this preſumption be obviated by a mere formal bail put in for the purpoſe of changing from one cuſtody to another.

Being arreſted for 100l. or more, of juſt debts, ſhall eſcape out of priſon. The act clearly intends ſuch an eſcape as ſhews he means to run away, and thereby to defeat his creditors; it muſt be an eſcape againſt the will of the ſheriff, for a man ſhall not be made a criminal where he has not the leaſt criminal intention to diſobey any law.

If any bankrupt, after iſſuing any commiſſion againſt him, pay to the perſon who ſued out the ſame, or otherwiſe give and deliver to ſuch perſon, goods, or any other ſatisfaction or ſecurity for his debt, whereby ſuch perſon ſhall privately have and receive more in the pound in reſpect of his debt than the other creditors, ſuch payment of money ſhall be an act of bankruptcy.

The legiſlature having by poſitive laws declared what acts ſhall be conſidered as criterions of inſolvency or fraud whereon to ground a commiſſion; none other can be admitted by inference or analogy.

An act of bankruptcy, if once plainly committed, can never be purged, even though the party continues to carry on a great trade; but if the act was doubtful, then circumſtances may explain the intent of the firſt act, and ſhew it not to have been done with a view to defraud creditors. But if after a plain act of bankruptcy, a man pays off, and compounds with all his creditors, he becomes a new man.

DECLARING THE PARTY BANKRUPT. The commiſſion being ſealed, three of the commiſſioners are to be ſummoned to attend a private meeting for the purpoſe of *opening the commiſſion*, who, after having qualified themſelves by taking the oath directed by the ſtatute, proceed to receive proof of the petitioning creditor's debt, (who muſt attend in perſon), the trading, and the act of bankruptcy, each of which muſt be made out to

their ſatisfaction, previous to their declaring the party bankrupt.

The commiſſioners cannot break open any but the bankrupt's houſe to ſearch for his goods, &c. If they have reaſon to apprehend the bankrupt is making away with and concealing his effects, or preparing to depart the kingdom, to avoid ſurrendering, they may ſummon him to appear before them to be examined immediately. The wife of a bankrupt cannot be examined againſt her huſband touching his bankruptcy, for ſhe, by the common law, cannot be a witneſs for or againſt her huſband; and though the ſtatute 21 Jas. I. authorizes the commiſſioners to examine the wife touching any concealments of the goods, effects, or eſtate of the bankrupt, yet neither does that or any other ſtatute extend to examine the bankrupt's wife touching his bankruptcy, or whether he had committed any act of bankruptcy, and how or when he became a bankrupt. The commiſſioners have no power or authority to commit one ſuſpected to detain effects of the bankrupt, for not attending to be examined, on their firſt ſummons. They may iſſue proceſs of contempt, not to puniſh, but to compel an anſwer; they have no power of committing for puniſhment, and they are not judges, and therefore the cauſe of their commitment is reverſable. They are, however, a court of juſtice ſufficient for the purpoſe of having their witneſſes protected.

Protection from arrest. The 5 Geo. II. c. 30. allows a bankrupt forty-two days to ſurrender in, but the ſooner he ſurrenders the better for the creditors. Therefore, to induce bankrupts to ſurrender, a privilege is held out to them by the ſame ſtatute, that in coming to ſurrender they ſhall be free from arreſt; *and alſo after actual ſurrender for the ſpace of forty-two days, or ſuch further time as ſhall be allowed for finiſhing their laſt examination.* But this is a particular privilege to enable them to ſurrender, and till actual ſurrender confined to the act of their going *with that view*, not a *general* privilege during the whole time which the act of parliament allows them to ſurrender in. Nevertheleſs, if a bankrupt be abroad, and upon his return with an intention to ſurrender, is arreſted on his landing before he can conveniently make his ſurrender, the privilege ſhall extend to him; but it muſt appear that he was actually going to ſurrender. If the commiſſioners adjourn the laſt examination, the bankrupt's protection continues. A bankrupt may be taken and ſurrendered by his bail within the time of privilege.

Proof of Debts. Debts may be proved at any of the public meetings appointed by the commiſſioners; the uſual proof is the

the oath of the creditor, which, if not objected to by the bankrupt himſelf, or any of the creditors, is generally deemed ſufficient; but if any well founded objection is raiſed, the demand muſt be farther ſubſtantiated by evidence. For though the creditor ſhould make a poſitive oath of the debt, the commiſſioners, if they conceive themſelves to have juſt grounds to doubt its fairneſs, ought to admit it only as a claim, for the debt muſt be made out to the ſatisfaction of the commiſſioners, otherwiſe it may be rejected. If a creditor ſwears to a falſe debt he may be convicted of perjury, and the aſſignees, in an action, may recover from ſuch creditor double the ſum ſworn to.

In caſes where the creditor lives in the country, or is abroad, the ſtatute directs that his affidavit of the debt ſhall be received by the commiſſioners; but where circumſtances make the obtaining an affidavit impoſſible, from his not being preſent to ſettle the accounts, or other good reaſon, proof may be admitted from other quarters.

The aim of the legiſlature in all the ſtatutes concerning bankrupts being that the creditors ſhould have an equal proportion of the bankrupt's effects, creditors of every deſcription muſt come in equally; nor will the nature of their demands make any difference, unleſs they have obtained actual execution, or taken ſome pledge or ſecurity before an act of bankruptcy committed. For when a creditor comes to prove his debt, he is obliged to ſwear, whether he has a ſecurity or not; and if he has, and inſiſts upon proving, he muſt deliver it up for the benefit of his creditors, unleſs it be a joint ſecurity from the bankrupt and another perſon; in which caſe he may come in for his whole debt under the commiſſion, without being compelled to deliver up the joint ſecurity, being intitled to recover what he can from the co-ſecurity, and take his dividend, upon the whole of his demand, upon the bankrupt's eſtate, provided he does not receive more than twenty ſhillings in the pound, in the whole. When therefore a creditor has a mortgage or other pledge that he apprehends is not equal to the payment of his debt, he muſt apply to the commiſſioners to have the pledge ſold; and to be admitted a creditor for the reſidue; and the commiſſioners may direct the ſale to be made before them, or by public auction; in which caſe the ſales have been decided to be liable to the auction duty. The commiſſioners can only direct the ſale of property mortgaged or pledged, in caſes where the creditor applies to them for ſuch relief, for they have no authority to diſpoſe of the creditor's ſecurity againſt his conſent.

Every ſecurity that a creditor has for his debt muſt be produced at the time of his proving, when the commiſſioners will mark them as having been exhibited.

If a creditor conceives himſelf aggrieved by the determination of the commiſſioners, upon his application to prove, he muſt apply by petition to the lord chancellor to correct the judgment of the commiſſioners. So if the commiſſioners have improperly admitted proof of a debt, redreſs muſt be ſought by petition and not by bill.

Creditors Election. The privilege of creditors to come in and prove their debts, and bankrupts to be diſcharged therefrom, is ſaid to be co-extenſive and commenſurate. However, the court will not abſolutely ſtop him from bringing an action, but put him to his election; and ſhould he elect to proceed at law, he will ſtill be allowed to prove his debt, for the purpoſe of aſſenting to, or diſſenting from, the certificate; which permiſſion is abſolutely requiſite to make his remedy at law of any avail; for ſhould the bankrupt procure his certificate, he will be hereby diſcharged from that action, as well as from all debts contracted before the bankruptcy. Where a creditor has proceeded at law before he applies to prove his debt under the commiſſion, he ought not to be permitted to prove without relinquiſhing his proceedings at law, unleſs by order from the great ſeal, for the purpoſe of ſignifying his aſſent to, or diſſent from, the certificate. The being choſen *aſſignee* will not prevent the creditor from ſuing the bankrupt at law, if he has not proved his debt, for in that caſe, he can only be conſidered as a creditor at large; and even if he has proved his debt, and choſen himſelf aſſignee, he *may ſtill elect to proceed at law*, and be diſcharged as a creditor under the commiſſion. If a creditor at the time the commiſſion iſſues has the bankrupt in execution, he may prove his debt under the commiſſion, and elect to diſcharge the bankrupt; but if after the commiſſion has iſſued a creditor proceeds at law againſt the bankrupt, and takes his body in execution, it is a concluſive election, and he will not be intitled to prove ſo as to receive a dividend, although he ſhould afterwards diſcharge the bankrupt out of cuſtody.

Executors. If an executor becomes a bankrupt, as he acts in *autre droit*, his bankruptcy does not take away the legal right of executorſhip, nor does the commiſſioners' aſſignment affect the teſtator's aſſets, except as to ſuch beneficial intereſt as the bankrupt may himſelf be intitled to. But though a bankrupt executor may ſtrictly be the proper hand to receive the aſſets, yet if his aſſignees have received any of the property, a court of equity will, for the benefit of creditors and legatees, either appoint a receiver, or direct the bankrupt himſelf to be admitted a creditor for what he ſhall be indebted to the eſtate, and order the dividends upon ſuch proof to be paid into the Bank, ſubject to the demands which may be raiſed againſt the teſtator's eſtate, or under his will. A bankruptcy does not affect the

right of an executor, in ſtrictneſs he is himſelf the proper perſon to be admitted to prove againſt his own eſtate; which is not incongruous, as he does it in *auter droit*, and the danger of embezzlement may be prevented by ordering the dividend to be paid into the court.

Annuities. The general rule as to common annuities is, that where one is intitled to an annuity from another, which is not a rent charge on land or on a ſpecific part of the grantor's eſtate, but perſonal, to be paid by him who afterwards becomes bankrupt, it is only a general demand on him and his eſtate, and there is nothing a debt on his eſtate but the arrears of the annuity at the time of the bankruptcy, unleſs the penalty of the annuity bond has become forfeited; for otherwiſe the payments accruing afterwards become a debt after the bankruptcy, and cannot be proved. But where there has been a forfeiture prior to the bankruptcy, in order to prevent the injuſtice of admitting the creditor only to prove the arrears accrued due before the bankruptcy, and the great inconvenience that would enſue if the annuity ſhould be received from time to time as an accruing debt on the eſtate, by which means the diviſion of the eſtate would be perpetual, and there could be no final dividend during the annuitant's life, the court puts it in another ſhape, of ſetting a value on the annuity, becauſe it was only a general perſonal demand. And in ſetting this value, conſideration muſt be had of the time the annuitant has enjoyed it. But if the annuity is ſecured by a deed of covenant, and a bond is likewiſe given as an additional ſecurity, and forfeited for non-payment before the bankruptcy, the creditor is not obliged to prove under the commiſſion, but may proceed at law for a breach of covenant, notwithſtanding the bankrupt has obtained his certificate.

Apprentices and Children. In caſe of an apprentice where the maſter becomes bankrupt, commiſſioners recommend it to the creditors to allow him a groſs ſum out of the eſtate, for the purpoſe of binding him to another maſter, as it would be hard to make him come in as a creditor under the commiſſion; but this, though it is equitable and juſt, muſt be conſidered as an indulgence, and not a right, for the court can only order him to be admitted as a creditor. A child living with the father, and earning money for itſelf, may, if the father receives the money, be admitted under the commiſſion againſt him.

Bonds. A bond, although it is not aſſignable at law, may be proved by the aſſignee under the commiſſion, but the aſſignor muſt join in the depoſition that he has not received the debt, or any part thereof, or any ſecurity or ſatisfaction for the ſame. All bonds for the payment of money are within the ſtatute

7 Geo. I. c. 31. which enables creditors upon ſecurities, payable in future on a day certain, to prove their debts and receive a dividend, "deducting thereout a rebate of intereſt, and diſ-"counting ſuch ſecurities payable at future times after the "rate of *five per cent. per annum* for what ſhall be ſo received, "to be computed from the actual payment thereof, to the "time ſuch debt, duty, or ſum of money, ſhould or would have "become due and payable."

Bills of Exchange, and Notes. Bills of exchange and promiſſory notes by the ſtatute of 7 Geo. I. c. 31. may be proved under the commiſſion, although they are not due at the time of iſſuing the commiſſion. The holder of a bill of exchange is intitled to prove his debt under a commiſſion againſt the drawer, acceptor, and indorſer, and to receive a dividend from each upon his whole debt, provided he does not in the whole receive more than twenty ſhillings in the pound. But there is a diſtinction in this caſe, where the creditor applies to prove his debt after having received a part, and where he applies to prove previous to having received any payment or compoſition; for if the creditor at the time of proving has received any part of the bill from any of the perſons liable to pay it, he is intitled to a dividend upon the whole, provided it does not exceed twenty ſhillings in the pound upon ſuch part as remains due. When accommodation tranſactions have taken place between perſons who both become bankrupts, bills accepted by each party being outſtanding, and the aſſignees of one firm claim to prove againſt the eſtate of the other, the bills ſtill remaining unſatisfied, and capable of proof againſt both eſtates, it ſhould ſeem that an account of the dealings between the parties muſt be taken, and that the unſatisfied bills of each party muſt be excluded from the account; and the balance aſcertained, upon the general dealings between them, conſidering bills duly honoured as ſo much caſh. When the acceptor of a bill becomes a bankrupt, the holder may prove the amount of the bill under his commiſſion, and alſo maintain an action againſt the other parties; but if the acceptor of a bill, or maker of a promiſſory note, become inſolvent, or offer to compound their debts, the holder of a bill or note acceding to ſuch compoſition, has been determined thereby to diſcharge the other parties, unleſs they had previouſly aſſented to the holder's executing the compoſition deed. Commiſſioners of bankrupts do not allow creditors to prove intereſt upon notes or bills, unleſs it is expreſſed upon the body of them. But the creditor may prove the full ſum for which the notes were given, notwithſtanding he received 5*l. per cent.* diſcount.

RENT. A landlord having a legal right to diſtrain goods while they remain on the premiſes, the iſſuing a commiſſion of bankrupt againſt the tenant, and the meſſenger's poſſeſſion of the goods of the tenant, will not hinder him from diſtraining for rent, for it is not ſuch a *cuſtodia legis* as an execution; and even there the law allows the landlord a year's rent; and the aſſignment by the commiſſioners of the bankrupt's eſtate and effects is only changing the property of the goods, and while upon the premiſes they remain liable to be diſtrained. If a trader at the time of his bankruptcy is poſſeſſed of a term, it paſſes by the aſſignment; but if the aſſignees do not conſider it as valuable, and do not chuſe to take poſſeſſion, they will not be liable to the rent.

INTEREST. The commiſſioners, after a man becomes a bankrupt, compute intereſt upon debts no lower than the date of the commiſſion, becauſe it is a dead fund, and in ſuch a ſhipwreck, if there is a ſalvage of part to each perſon, it is as much as can be expected. A ſpecialty creditor cannot have intereſt beyond the penalty contained in his ſecurity, but a creditor by note carrying intereſt may receive the full amount.

COSTS. On actions whether of debt, *aſſumpſit*, or for a tort, the judgment when ſigned, relates to the verdict; and the coſts *de incremento* when taxed are annexed to thoſe aſſeſſed by the jury, and become conſolidated with them by a fair and equitable relation of law, and therefore they may be proved as a debt if the verdict is prior to the bankruptcy.

DEBTS VOID BY STATUTE. A debt made void by ſtatute ought not to be permitted to be proved, as a debt on an uſurious contract; and though the rule of the court of chancery is, upon a bill to be relieved againſt demands of uſurious intereſt, not to make void the whole debt, but to make the party pay what is really due; in a commiſſion of bankrupt the aſſignees have a right to inſiſt that the whole is void, as an uſurious contract. And unleſs the aſſignees and creditors ſubmit to pay what is really due, the lord chancellor has not power to order it.

PAYABLE IN FUTURE. Before the ſtatute 7 Geo. I. c. 31. debts which had not become due at the time of the bankruptcy could not have been proved; but by that ſtatute the legiſlature put debts payable in future upon a day certain on the ſame footing as debts actually due; however, as the preamble to that ſtatute recites only "ſecurities for the ſale of goods and merchandize," it became a queſtion whether ſecurities given on any other account were within the act, the words of which are, "all and every perſon or perſons who have or ſhall give

" credit on ſuch ſecurities as aforeſaid, to any perſon who ſhall " become bankrupt upon a good and valuable conſideration, " *bona fide* for any ſum or ſums of money, or other matter or " thing." And it was held that it extends to all ſorts of bonds for the payment of money, and that the words *ſuch ſecurity* do not mean ſecurity for ſuch a ſort of debt, but ſecurity by bonds, bills, notes, &c. For there is a legiſlative conſtruction of this very act in the 5th Geo. II. c 30. which, without conceiving a doubt, takes it for granted that the ſtatute is not merely confined to ſecurities for goods ſold and delivered in the courſe of trade, but that it extends generally to all perſonal ſecurities for a valuable conſideration, where the time of payment is certain, though poſtponed to a future day.

CONTINGENT DEBTS. Contingent debts are not permitted to be proved under a commiſſion of bankrupt, unleſs the contingency took effect before an act of bankruptcy committed; becauſe the debt ought to be due and payable before the bankruptcy. Contingent debts are therefore left unprovided for, except bottomry and *reſpondentia* bonds, and policies of inſurance, the holders of which are relieved by the 19 Geo II. c. 32. which admits them to make a claim, and prove when the contingency takes effect. Contingent debts are ſaid not to be included in the ſtatute 7 Geo. I.; becauſe, it being uncertain whether they ſhall ever become due or not, it is impoſſible to make ſuch abatement of 5 *l. per cent.* as the act directs, therefore they cannot be within it. In collateral undertakings, if the party engaging to ſecure the debt himſelf becomes bankrupt before that debt is payable to the principal, the creditor cannot prove under his commiſſion. Where a man becomes bail for another, it is conſidered as a contingent debt. And if the bail commit an act of bankruptcy before the judgment, it cannot be proved under the commiſſion. The hardſhip of not admitting a ſecurity to prove a debt which he pays ſubſequent to the commiſſion is in ſome meaſure relieved when the original creditor has made his proof before he calls upon the ſurety for payment, becauſe the ſurety is held to have equitable right to ſtand in the place of the original creditor, and receive dividends upon his proof.

JOINT DEBTS. Joint creditors are entitled to a diſtribution of the joint or partnerſhip eſtate, without the ſeparate creditors being permitted to participate with them; but notwithſtanding ſeparate creditors are not entitled to ſhare the dividend of the joint property, until the joint creditors have received twenty ſhillings in the pound, yet they are upon petition let in to prove their reſpective ſeparate debts under the joint commiſſion, *paying contribution to the charge of it*; and as the joint or partnerſhip

nerſhip eſtate is in the firſt place to be applied to pay the joint or partnerſhip debts, ſo in like manner the ſeparate eſtate ſhall be in the firſt place applied to pay all the ſeparate debts. This is ſettled as a rule of convenience, and it is reſolved, that if there be a ſurplus of the joint eſtate, beſides what will pay the joint creditors, the ſame ſhall be allotted in due proportion to the ſeparate eſtate of each partner, and applied to pay the ſeparate creditors. And if there be on the other hand a ſurplus of the ſeparate eſtate, beyond what will ſatisfy the ſeparate creditors, it ſhall go to ſupply any deficiency that may remain as to the joint creditors. This mode of adjuſting the rights of each claſs of creditors, where a joint commiſſion is taken out, ſeems at one time to have been extended by the court into a rule, to direct the proof of debts under a ſeparate commiſſion, by virtue of which, the ſeparate eſtate only can be aſſigned, and therefore it was held, that joint creditors could not prove under ſuch a commiſſion, except for the purpoſe of aſſenting to, or diſſenting from, the bankrupt's certificate.

Claiming a Debt. In caſe of debts uncertain in point of liquidation, as between two merchants in ballancing accounts, the matter reſts upon a claim, to aſcertain the ſum that was due at the time of the bankruptcy. So where a creditor cannot aſcertain his debt with ſufficient certainty to enable him to ſwear to it, or is not able in other reſpects ſatisfactorily to ſubſtantiate it; or where the agent of a creditor cannot produce his authority, and in many other caſes where there appears a probable foundation of a demand, though not ſufficiently made out, it is uſual for the commiſſioners to ſuffer *a claim to be entered*, but that will not entitle the party to a dividend, which he cannot receive without completely proving his debt. If a claim is not ſubſtantiated in reaſonable time, the commiſſioners may ſtrike it out, and they generally do ſo before a divided is declared, unleſs ſufficient reaſon is offered to them for prolonging the time; but the creditor is notwithſtanding afterwards at liberty to prove his debt and receive his ſhare upon any future dividends. However, in ſuch caſes where there has not been groſs neglect, the lord chancellor will make an order that ſuch creditor ſhall be paid his proportion of the firſt dividend out of the money in the aſſignees' hands, upon condition that it does not break in upon any former dividend.

Assignees. The ſtatute 5 Geo. II. c. 30. authorizes commiſſioners, immediately upon declaring the party a bankrupt, to appoint an aſſignee, and to make a *proviſional aſſignment* to him, but does not oblige them to do ſo; and indeed this practice has not of late years been much uſed, as it creates expence without anſwering any good end, except where the bankrupt

is indebted to the crown, and an extent is apprehended. When ſuch appointment is thought neceſſary, the commiſſioners may, at their diſcretion, aſſign the whole or part of the bankrupt's effects; for the words of the ſtatute are in the diſjunctive, *immediately to appoint one or more aſſignee or aſſignees of the eſtate or effects, or any part thereof.* The commiſſioners, immediately after declaring the party bankrupt, are to appoint a time and place for the choice of aſſignees (which is always the ſecond meeting) to take care of the bankrupt's eſtate and effects. It is not neceſſary that all the creditors ſhould have an opportunity of voting in the choice of aſſignees. The ſtatute having directed that the choice of aſſignees ſhall be by the major part in *value* of the creditors, one creditor, if his debt be ſufficiently large, may chooſe himſelf aſſignee.

THEIR TRUST. Aſſignees are in the nature of truſtees, and where they employ an agent to receive or pay money, and he abuſes this confidence, an aſſignee cannot be diſtinguiſhed from any other truſtee, who, if his agent deceive him, muſt anſwer over to the *ceſtui que* truſts. The negligence of one aſſignee ſhall not hurt another joint aſſignee, where he is not at all privy to any private and perſonal agreement entered into by his brother aſſignee. Aſſignees have not a general power to proſecute ſuits in equity, or ſubmit matters to arbitration; but they muſt have a meeting of creditors, upon notice given for that purpoſe in the *London Gazette*, to *conſider of each particular ſuit*, or each *particular caſe for arbitration*, before they can proceed in them. If the majority of creditors are againſt bringing a bill, the aſſignees cannot do it, but it is ſaid that any creditor may at the peril of coſts. Though the acts of parliament relating to bankrupts only direct the aſſignees to adverti ſe a meeting of creditors in relation to commencing ſuits, and for particular purpoſes, yet the aſſignees are very much to be commended for advertiſing meetings upon any other extraordinary occaſion that concerns the creditors, becauſe where they are numerous, there is no other convenient method of collecting the whole body together. It is the duty of aſſignees to make a dividend as early as poſſible after the time given by the ſtatute for creditors to come in and prove their debts. And if they neglect making a dividend, and keep the money in their own hands, they will be liable to intereſt for it.

REMOVAL. If aſſignees miſbehave in the truſt repoſed in them, they may be removed by petition to the lord chancellor on the behalf of a creditor. So if an aſſignee himſelf becomes bankrupt, that will be a ſufficient ground for his removal; or if the commiſſioners act improperly at the choice of aſſignees. When an aſſignee is removed he muſt join with the old aſſignee and the commiſſioners in making an aſſignment to the

new aſſignee. And where an aſſignee is removed on account of his own bankruptcy, lord Hardwicke was of opinion that he and his aſſignees muſt join with the commiſſioners in executing an aſſignment to the new aſſignees. But where the aſſignee has abſconded, or from other cauſes he could not execute the aſſignment to the new aſſignee, the lord chancellor has, under the authority of the ſtatute, directed the firſt aſſignment from the commiſſioners to the new aſſignee.

LAST EXAMINATION. The 5 Geo. II. c. 30. requires the bankrupt to ſurrender at the laſt meeting appointed by the commiſſioners; or, in caſe the time for ſurrendering is enlarged, upon petition to the perſon holding the great ſeal, then that he ſhould ſurrender at the time appointed; and makes the neglect to ſurrender felony without benefit of clergy. But although the bankrupt is not bound to ſurrender until the laſt meeting, the commiſſioners have authority in the intermediate time to ſummon and examine him touching his eſtate and effects. And they have alſo power to examine the bankrupt, as to a further diſcloſure of his eſtate and effects, after he has paſſed what is uſually called his laſt examination. The commiſſioners may examine the bankrupt, to all matters that are requiſite to a full diſcloſure of his eſtate and effects, and the manner he has diſpoſed of them, notwithſtanding ſuch examination ſhould ſubject him to penalties, as in the caſe of ſmuggling or gaming, for that is no reaſon why the commiſſion ſhould not proceed; and if the bankrupt has any objection to the queſtion, he muſt demur to the interrogatories, and the lord chancellor will judge of the queſtion upon a petition; or if the bankrupt refuſe to anſwer any queſtion, and the commiſſioners commit him, and the delinquent brings an *habeas corpus*, the queſtion muſt be ſet forth particularly in the return to the *habeas corpus*, that the judges may decide whether it was a lawful queſtion or not. An agreement by the friends of the bankrupt to pay a ſum of money, in conſideration that the creditors would not examine him as to particular points, is void. If a bankrupt in his anſwers to his examination will ſwear fully and roundly, it has been ſaid that the commiſſioners cannot commit, although they may diſbelieve him; for it is one thing, whether the anſwer be true, and another, whether it be ſufficient: but this doctrine has ſince been over-ruled. It is not every queſtion that requires a poſitive and abſolute anſwer; for where the nature of the caſe ſeems to admit a reaſonable probability of forgetfulneſs or inattention, the bankrupt may anſwer according to his recollection or belief.

DUTY AFTERWARD. It is the duty of every bankrupt, to attend the commiſſioners at all times, till his affairs are finiſhed, or at leaſt be amenable to their call. It is alſo his duty to aſſiſt

aſſiſt his aſſignees in diſcovering and getting in his effects; and a bankrupt who quits the kingdom puts it out of his own power to conform to the bankrupt laws. But notwithſtanding it is the duty of the bankrupt to attend the commiſſioners at all times till his affairs are finiſhed, and to aſſiſt his aſſignees, yet there ſeems ſome doubt, whether any coercive power is extended by the 5 Geo. II. c. 30. to compel him to a performance of his duty, after the forty-two days, or the enlarged time fixed for his ſurrender, are elapſed.

MAINTENANCE. The bankrupt has no right to be maintained out of his effects during his examination.

CERTIFICATE. Four fifths in number and value of the creditors of the bankrupt for not leſs than 20*l.* reſpectively, and who ſhall have duly proved their debts under the commiſſion, or ſome other perſon by them duly authorized, ſhall ſign the certificate. An executor may ſign a bankrupt's certificate; but a perſon who has a debt in his own right, and another debt as executor, cannot ſign a certificate in two diſtinct rights, for both are to be conſidered as his own particular debt. When the commiſſioners have ſigned the certificate, notice muſt be given in the *London Gazette*, that the ſame will be allowed by the lord chancellor, unleſs cauſe is ſhewn to the contrary, on or before a particular day, which is always twenty-one days from the notice in the Gazette. If a petition is preſented againſt the certificate on or before the day appointed for the allowance, it is immediately ſtayed, and the petition ſet down, to come on in the uſual courſe. The petition muſt be ſerved on the bankrupt, that he may have an opportunity of anſwering the allegations; and, if an order is made to ſtay the certificate, ſuch order muſt be drawn up within three months, or the certificate will be allowed. The certificate muſt be oppoſed by a creditor; but although a creditor of a bankrupt under 20*l.* is excluded from aſſenting to, or diſſenting from the certificate, &c. yet, as he is affected by the conſequence of allowing it, he has a right to petition, and ſhew any fraud, as reaſon againſt allowing it.

The certificate will be of no avail, if it can be proved that the bankrupt, upon marriage of his child, advanced above the value of 100*l.* unleſs he had at the time ſufficient to pay his full debts; or if the bankrupt loſt in one day 5*l.* or in the whole 100*l.* within twelve-months preceding his becoming bankrupt, in playing at or with cards, dice, tables, tennis, bowls, horſe-races, dog-matches, or foot-races, or other paſtimes, or games; or by bearing a part in the ſtakes, wagers, or adventures; or by betting on the ſides or hands of ſuch as do play, act, ride, or run; or that within one year before he became bankrupt he ſhould have loſt the ſum of 100*l.*

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by one or more contracts for the purchaſe, ſale, refuſal, or delivery of any ſtock of any company or corporation, or any part or ſhares of any government or public funds or ſecurities, where ſuch contract was not to be performed within one week from the time of making ſuch contract; or where the ſtock or other thing ſo bought, or ſold, was not actually transferred or delivered in purſuance of ſuch contract. But inſuring in the lottery is not within the ſtatute. If one or even all a bankrupt's creditors are induced by money to ſign his certificate, though he does not know of it at the time of ſigning, nor even when he makes the neceſſary affidavit, in order to obtain the allowance of the certificate by the chancellor, yet if he knows it before the actual allowance, the certificate is void; for though a third perſon ſhall not be puniſhed for the fraud of another, he ſhall not avail himſelf of it. There is no way of compelling the creditors to ſign the certificate; they are all left at liberty, and ought to be upon a par; and if ſome are induced to ſign it becauſe others have, who they ſuppoſe to be on a par with themſelves, but who in fact have been paid, this is a groſs fraud upon them. But if money is given by an enemy of the bankrupt's in order to deprive the bankrupt of the effect of his certificate, where there are creditors ſufficient in number and value, without thoſe who are paid to ſign it, the bankrupt ſhall not be hurt by this fraud upon him; but if the neceſſary number and value is completed by perſons who are induced to ſign by money, that, though without the privity of the bankrupt, is a fraud on the creditors at large, and ſhall not have the intended effect. So if a creditor is induced by money to withdraw a petition preſented againſt the certificate, or after ſuch a petition ſells his debt, with an agreement to withdraw his petition, it will avoid the certificate; and, to prevent ſuch practice, petitions againſt a certificate are not now allowed to be withdrawn as of courſe. A certificate is a bar againſt all creditors, whether they have ſigned or not, but they ſhall not be deprived of their remedy againſt the bankrupt, unleſs it is obtained agreeably to the directions of the ſtatute. As it is iniquitous and illegal for a creditor to take, ſo it is for him to retain, money paid to him even by the bankrupt's friend for ſigning the certificate. If a man make uſe of what is in his own power to extort money from one in diſtreſs, it is certainly illegal and oppreſſive, and whether it is the bankrupt or his friend, who paid the money, it is the ſame thing. The taking money for ſigning certificates is either an oppreſſion on the bankrupt and his family, or a fraud on his other creditors. It was a thing wrong in itſelf before any proviſion was made againſt it by ſtatute; for if the bankrupt has conformed to all the law requires of him, and has fairly given up his all, the creditors

creditors ought in juſtice to ſign his certificate; but, on the other hand, if the bankrupt has been guilty of any fraud or concealment, the creditor ought not to ſign for any conſideration whatever. If any near relation is induced to pay the money for the bankrupt, it is taking an unfair advantage, and torturing the compaſſion of his family. If it is the money of the bankrupt himſelf, it is giving one creditor his debt to the excluſion of the others, and a fraud upon them; therefore an action will lie to recover back money paid to a creditor to ſign the bankrupt's certificate. Where an agreement was made to pay a ſum of money to the aſſignees, for the benefit of all the creditors, if they would ſign the certificate, it was notwithſtanding held to be within the letter and the reaſon of the ſtatute; for great corruption and oppreſſion might ariſe from a combination of all the creditors to exact conditions for ſigning the certificate.

In allowing the bankrupt's certificate, the lord chancellor muſt be determined by the acts of parliament; and a *mandamus* will not lie to compel the allowance, for it is diſcretionary in the commiſſioners firſt, and afterwards in the lord chancellor, though it ought not to be arbitrary, either in the commiſſioners or the chancellor to grant or refuſe the certificate, but they ought to be governed entirely by the fairneſs or fraudulent behaviour of the bankrupt. As therefore the chancellor is empowered to exerciſe a legal diſcretion in the granting or refuſing certificates, he may in the ſame manner poſtpone his allowance, whenever the nature of the caſe appears to require it.

Effect of a Certificate. The certificate diſcharges the bankrupt from all debts, both joint and ſeparate, that might have been proved under the commiſſion, therefore it diſcharges a bankrupt from a debt accruing before the act of bankruptcy, though judgment is not obtained till after the certificate allowed. The bankrupt laws being now adopted in Ireland, if a trader there becomes a bankrupt, and obtains his certificate, it will operate as a diſcharge in an action brought here upon a debt ariſing in Ireland. A certificate does not diſcharge a bankrupt from a contingent debt which has not been reduced to a certainty, becauſe it cannot be proved under the commiſſion; and in queſtions whether a debt is diſcharged or not by a certificate, the point agitated has always been, whether it could be proved or not; the creditor's right to prove and the bankrupt's right to be diſcharged by the certificate, being reciprocal and co-extenſive.

The allowing the certificate of a bankrupt will not diſcharge his ſureties; and if they are forced to pay the debt after the commiſſion of bankruptcy, the certificate will be no bar to

their

their recovering it of the principal. But if a bankrupt obtains his certificate before his bail are fixed, it will diſcharge them; if not till after they are fixed, they will remain liable notwithſtanding the certificate, for it has no relation back, and till allowed it is nothing. And if the creditor proves his debt, with intent to obſtruct the certificate, it does not preclude him from purſuing his legal remedies; and even if he has received his debt, or part of it, under the commiſſion, ſtill he might proceed to fix the bail, who would be entitled to their remedy, ſo far as they are oppreſſed, by *audita querela*, or by motion, but they cannot plead the certificate.

The ſtatute empowers one or more of the judges of the court in which the action is brought, to order the ſheriff, &c. to diſcharge the bankrupt out of cuſtody without payment of any fee or reward; and in caſe of the bankrupt being arreſted after his certificate allowed, he is to be diſcharged upon common bail. But if there is any appearence of fraud on the part of the bankrupt, or it appears that the certificate is ſeriouſly meant to be diſputed, the court will not interfere in a ſummary way. If a bankrupt obtained his certificate pending an action to which he had given bail, formerly the method was for the bail to ſurrender the defendant, and then for him to apply to be diſcharged, upon an affidavit, ſtating the fact of his having become a bankrupt ſince the cauſe of action aroſe, and obtained a certificate; but of late, where a bankrupt is clearly entitled to his diſcharge, the court, to avoid circuity, have ordered an *exoneretur* to be entered on the bail piece, without the form of a regular ſurrender of the bankrupt by his bail. But the bail can never be in a better ſituation than the principal; therefore where it appears that the bankrupt himſelf would not be entitled to be diſcharged, a motion on the part of the bail to enter an *exoneretur* on the bail piece will of courſe be refuſed.

New Promiſe. A bankrupt, after a commiſſion of bankrupt iſued out, may, in conſideration of a debt due before the bankruptcy, make ſuch creditor a ſatisfaction, in part, or for the whole of his debt by a new undertaking or agreement, and *aſſumpſit* for the original conſideration will lie upon ſuch new promiſe or undertaking. For a bankrupt may undoubtedly contract new debts; therefore, if there is any objection to his recovering an old debt by a new promiſe, it muſt be founded on the ground of its being *nudum pactum*. But all the debts of a bankrupt are due in conſcience, notwithſtanding he has obtained his certificate.

Dividend. The act of parliament allows the aſſignees a complete four months, from the iſſuing the commiſſion, to make a dividend; therefore the lord chancellor will not inter-

fere reſpecting the dividend within that time. But if the aſſignees, after the four months are elapſed, refuſe to make a dividend, the chancellor will, upon petition, order them to attend the commiſſioners at a meeting appointed for that purpoſe, and direct them to declare a dividend, if, upon examining the accounts and the aſſignees upon oath, they find there is a ſufficient fund; or the commiſſioners may themſelves, without an order of the court, ſummon the aſſignees to produce their accounts, and ſhew cauſe why a dividend ſhould not be declared, which ſummons and meeting for the aſſignees' attendance may be had without any expence, upon the application of a creditor who has proved a debt.

If creditors have not been able to prove their debts in time to receive a firſt dividend, they will ſtill be admitted to prove their debts, if they can reaſonably account for their delay, upon the terms of not diſturbing any former dividend; and upon obtaining an order for that purpoſe, they muſt, in the firſt place, be brought up equal to the creditors under the former dividends, before the commiſſioners can proceed to make another. And it is the practice, without an order, to permit creditors to prove at a meeting to declare a dividend, and in the firſt place to direct them to be paid equal to thoſe who had proved before, and then to direct a general diſtribution of the reſidue.

Bankrupt's Allowance. The ſtatute 5 Geo. II. c. 30. directs that every bankrupt who ſhall, within the time limitted by the act, ſurrender to the commiſſioners, and in all things conform, as in the act directed, ſhall be allowed the ſum of five pounds *per centum* out of the neat produce of all the eſtate that ſhall be recovered by the aſſignees, in caſe ſuch neat produce after the allowance made, ſhall be ſufficient to pay the creditors ten ſhillings in the pound, and ſo as the allowance ſhall not amount in the whole to above the ſum of two hundred pounds. And in caſe the neat produce of the eſtate ſhall, over and above the allowance next mentioned, be ſufficient to pay the creditors twelve ſhillings and ſixpence in the pound, then the bankrupt ſhall be allowed ſeven pounds ten ſhillings *per centum*, but not amounting in the whole to above two hundred and fifty pounds. And in caſe the neat produce of the ſaid eſtate ſhall be ſufficient to pay fifteen ſhillings in the pound, then to be allowed ten pounds *per centum*, not amounting in the whole to above three hundred pounds. Provided always, that if the neat proceed of the bankrupt's eſtate ſhall not pay the creditors ten ſhillings in the pound, the bankrupt ſhall be allowed ſo much money as the ſaid aſſignees and commiſſioners ſhall think fit, not exceeding three pounds *per centum*.

Although a bankrupt does ſurrender and conform, yet he is not entitled to the allowance given to bankrupts, unleſs he has obtained

obtained his certificate before the final dividend; for if the creditors ſhould conſent to give it him before, it would be of no ſervice, as they might take it from him again the next moment; for it would be liable, in his hands, to ſatisfy any creditor, till he is entirely cleared by the certificate. Bankrupts are not entitled to their allowance, till a final dividend is made, becauſe it cannot be ſeen before, whether they will be entitled to any allowance at all; for the act of parliament directs, that the neat produce of his eſtate ſhall be ſufficient to pay the creditors of the bankrupt, who have proved their debts under the commiſſion, the ſum of ten ſhillings in the pound, after ſuch allowance made.

If the bankrupt's eſtate is more than ſufficient to pay twenty ſhillings in the pound, he is entitled to the ſurplus; but all creditors by bonds, contracts, or notes carrying intereſt as has been allowed by the courſe of dealing, are entitled to receive intereſt out of his eſtate for the principal ſum owing at the time of the commiſſion, before any ſurplus ſhall be conveyed to the bankrupt or his repreſentative.

SUPERSEDEAS. The *Superſedeas* is a writ iſſuing under the great ſeal to ſuperſede the commiſſion, and this writ may be iſſued at the diſcretion of the lord chancellor, in caſes where it is unfit the commiſſion ſhould be proceeded in.

From this detail of the bankrupt laws it will appear that their regulations are at once wiſe, juſt, and humane, calculated to afford to the fair creditor the beſt means of redreſs, and to the honeſt debtor a reaſonable proſpect of re-eſtabliſhment. That a ſyſtem affecting ſo large a maſs of property ſhould never afford means of fraud and abuſe is not to be expected, but it muſt be evident that the greateſt care and attention have been employed by the legiſlature to render theſe frauds as few, and to the perpetrators, as dangerous as poſſible; and it muſt be a great ſatisfaction to all perſons intereſted, to ſee the affairs of the commiſſion publicly adminiſtered by gentlemen of knowledge and character, ſworn to impartiality, and reſtrained from receiving any fee beyond 1*l.* each, for each ſitting. And if theſe circumſtances did not afford a ſufficient guaranty for juſtice and impartiality, it is alſo to be remembered that the appeal lies to the higheſt law officer in the kingdom, and that doubtful caſes may be laid open to trial by a jury.

THE METROPOLIS.

The portion of the Britiſh Empire to be conſidered under this head, comprizes not only the city of London, within and without the walls, properly and anciently formed the Metropolis

or capital of the kingdom, but the adjacent parts which have been joined to it, in conſequence of the increaſe of inhabitants and the advance of wealth and luxury; including the city of Weſtminſter, with many pariſhes in the county of Middleſex, and the borough of Southwark, with ſeveral in Surrey. Maitland, who publiſhed his hiſtory of London fifty years ago, ſays, this ancient city has ingulphed one city, one borough, and forty-three villages, *viz.* the city of Weſtminſter, the borough of Southwark, and the villages of Mora, Finſbury, Wenlaxbarn, Clerkenwell, Iſlington, Hoxton, Shoreditch, Nortonfalgate, the Spital, Whitechapel, Mile-End New-Town, Mile-End Old-Town, Stepney, Poplar, Limehouſe, Ratcliff, Shadwell, Wapping, Stepney, Eaſt Smithfield, the Hermitage, St. Catharine's, the Minories, St. Clements-Danes, the Strand, Charing Croſs, St. James's, Knight's-Bridge, Soho, St. Giles's in the Field, Bloomſbury, Portpool, Saffron-hill, Holborn, Vauxhall, Lambeth, Lambeth-Marſh, Kennington, Newington Buts, Bermondſey the Grange, Horſleydown and Rotherhithe. To theſe may be added the intire pariſh of St. Mary-lebonne, and a great portion of that of St. Pancras, which, ſince Maitland's work was publiſhed, have been covered with houſes, and contain more than one hundred thouſand inhabitants. The whole metropolis extends nearly eight miles in length, is three miles at leaſt in breadth, and not leſs than twenty-ſix in circumference; containing above eight thouſand ſtreets, lanes, alleys, andcourts, and ſixty-five ſquares. The population of the metropolis, as returned to Parliament in 1801, is in the abſtract as follows:

	Houses.			Persons.		
	Inhabited.	By how many families occupied.	Uninhabited.	Males.	Females.	Total of Persons.
London within the Walls	10,224	16,229	325	37,020	38,151	75,171
London without the Walls	20,680	36,178	682	69,827	77,402	147,229
Out Pariſhes in Middleſex and Surrey	56,207	93,886	2,244	163,899	200,627	364,526
City and Liberties of Weſtminſter	18,231	40,833	784	71,301	86,909	158,210
Inns of Court, Extra Parochial	1,230	816	62	1,293	614	1,907
Pariſhes not within the Bills of Mortality	14,657	28,131	1,088	50,029	67,773	117,802
Total	121,229	216,073	5,185	393,369	471,476	864,845

London

London is ſituated in the latitude of 51 degrees 31 minutes north; at the diſtance of 500 miles ſouth-weſt of Copenhagen; 190 weſt of Amſterdam; 660 north-weſt of Vienna; 225 north-weſt of Paris; 690 north-eaſt of Madrid; 750 north-weſt of Rome; and 1500 north-weſt of Conſtantinople. It extends from weſt to eaſt, along the banks of the river Thames, being diſtant from the ſea about ſixty miles. The choice of the ſituation of this great city was moſt judicious. It is on a gravelly ſoil; and on a declivity down to the borders of a magnificent river. The ſlope is evident in every part of the ancient city, and the vaſt modern buildings. The ancient city was defended in front by the river; on the weſt ſide by the deep ravine, ſince known by the name of Fleet Ditch; on the north by moraſſes; on the eaſt, probably by another ravine. All the land round Weſtminſter abbey was a flat fen, which continued beyond Fulham: but a riſe commences oppoſite to it, and forms a magnificent bend above the curvature of the Thames, even to the Tower. The Surrey-ſide was in all probability a great expanſe of water, a lake, a Llyn, as the Welſh call it, which ſome think might have given a name to the capital; Llyn Din, or the city on the lake. The expanſe of water might have filled the ſpace between the riſing grounds at Deptford, and thoſe at Clapham; and been bounded to the ſouth, by the beautiful Surrey-hills. Lambeth-marſh, and the Bankſide evidently were recovered from the water. Along Lambeth are the names of narrow walls, or the mounds which ſerve for that purpoſe; and in Southwark, Bankſide again ſhews the means of converting the ancient lake into uſeful land: even to this day the tract beyond Southwark, and in particular that beyond Bermondſey-ſtreet, is ſo very low, and beneath the level of common tides, that the proprietors are obliged to ſecure it by embankments. The ſituation with reſpect to navigation is peculiarly favourable, being neither too high nor too low. Had it been placed lower down upon the river, it would not only have been annoyed by the marſhes, but more liable to inſults from foreign foes; and if it had been higher, it would not have been acceſſible, as it is at preſent, to ſhips of large burdens. But its actual poſition is ſuch as to give it every advantage, that can be derived from a ſeaport, without any of its dangers. It alſo enjoys, by means of its noble river, a very extenſive communication with the internal parts of the country, that ſupply it with every ſpecies of the neceſſaries of life, and receive from it, in return, thoſe articles of commerce, which they may reſpectively require. It is plentifully ſupplied with the very great and important article of fuel, by the navi-

gation of its river, from the northern collieries, which branch of commerce forms a principal nurſery for ſeamen, independent of foreign trade; and is a very diſtinguiſhed ſource of its naval ſuperiority. The principal ſtreets are open and airy, and ſurpaſs all others in Europe in their convenience for trade, and the accommodation of paſſengers of every deſcription; they are paved in the middle for carriages, with large ſtones in a very compact manner, forming a ſmall convexity to paſs the water off by channels; and on each ſide is a broad level path, formed of flag-ſtones, raiſed a little above the centre, for the convenience of foot paſſengers. Underneath the pavements are large vaulted channels called ſewers, which communicate with each houſe by ſmaller ones, and with every ſtreet, by convenient openings and gratings, to carry off all filth that can be conveyed in that manner into the river. All mud or other rubbiſh that accumulates, is taken away by perſons employed by the public for that purpoſe. Moſt of the great ſtreets appropriated to ſhops for retail trade, have an unrivalled aſpect of wealth and ſplendour. The ſhops themſelves are handſomely fitted up, and decorated with taſte; but the manufactures with which they are ſtored form their chief ornament. Moſt of the houſes in London are built on an uniform plan. Water is conveyed three times a week into almoſt every houſe, by leaden pipes, and preſerved in ciſterns or tubs, in ſuch quantities that the inhabitants have a conſtant and even laviſh ſupply.

In conſidering the metropolis, the city of London properly ſo called will firſt be noticed, then Weſtminſter and Southwark in a general way, and afterwards ſome ſeparate or miſcellaneous particulars relating to them all.

It would be foreign to the purpoſe of this work, to inveſtigate the ancient hiſtory of London, nor could any thing ſatisfactory be derived from the authors who have treated on the ſubject, formed as their accounts are of groſs fictions, and uncertain conjectures. In the reign of Nero, Anno Domini 61, authentic mention is made of this city by Tacitus, and he ſpeaks of it as a place already well eſtabliſhed, and in the enjoyment of a conſiderable trade. The exports at that time were cattle, hides and corn; dogs made a ſmall article; and ſlaves were a conſiderable object. Our internal parts were on a level with the African ſlave coaſts; and wars among the petty monarchs were promoted for the ſake of that traffic. The imports were at firſt ſalt, earthen-ware, and works in braſs, poliſhed bits of bone emulating ivory, horſe collars, toys of amber, and glaſſes, and other articles of the ſame material. When the Romans became maſters of London, they enlarged the precincts, and altered their form. The city extended in length from Ludgate-hill,

hill, to a ſpot a little beyond the Tower. The breadth was not half equal to the length, and at each end grew conſiderably narrower. Maitland ſuſpects that the walls were not built till a very late period of the empire, and that it was an open town; becauſe the city happened to be ſurprized, in the days of Dioclefian and Maximilian, by a party of banditti, who were cut off by a band of Roman ſoldiers, who fortunately had, at the very time they were engaged in the plunder, come up the river in a fog. The time in which the wall was built is very uncertain. Some aſcribe the work to Conſtantine the Great. Maitland, to Theodoſius, governor of Britain in 369. As to the laſt, we know no more, than that, after he had cleared the country of the barbarians, he redreſſed grievances, ſtrengthened the garriſons, and repaired the cities and forts which had been damaged. If London was among thoſe, it certainly implies a prior fortification. Poſſibly the founder of the walls might have been Conſtantine, as numbers of coins of his mother, Helena, have been diſcovered under them, placed in compliment to her. This conjecture is ſtrengthened by the obſervation, that in honour of this empreſs, the city, about that time, received from her the title of Auguſta; which for ſome time ſuperſeded the ancient one of Londinium. Long before this period, it was fully romanized, and the cuſtoms, manners, buildings, and arts of the conquerors adopted. The commerce of the empire flowed in regularly; came in a direct channel from ſeveral parts then known, not as in the earlier days (when deſcribed by Strabo) by the intervention of other nations; for till the ſettlement of the Roman conqueſt, nothing could come immediately from Italy. The ancient courſe of the walls was as follows:—It began with a fort near the preſent ſite of the Tower, was continued along the Minories, and the back of Houndſditch, acroſs Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, in a ſtraight line by London-wall to Cripplegate, then returned ſouthward by Crowder's Well-alley, (where ſeveral remnants of lofty towers were lately to be ſeen,) to Alderſgate; thence along the back of Bull-and-Mouth-ſtreet to Newgate, and again along the back of the houſes in the Old Bailey to Ludgate; ſoon after which it probably finiſhed with another fort, where the houſe, late the king's printing-houſe, in Blackfriars, now ſtands: from hence another wall ran near the river ſide, along Thames-ſtreet, quite to the fort on the eaſtern extremity. The walls were three miles, a hundred and ſixty-five feet in circumference, guarded at proper diſtances, on the land-ſide, with fifteen lofty towers; ſome of them were remaining within theſe few years and poſſibly may ſtill. Maitland mentions one, twenty-ſix feet high near Gravel-lane, on the weſt-ſide of Houndſditch; another, about eighty paces ſouth-eaſt towards

Aldgate; but ſince his publication, they have been demoliſhed, ſo that there is not a trace left. The walls, when perfect, are ſuppoſed to have been twenty-two feet high, the towers forty. Theſe, with the remnants of the wall, were proved to be of Roman ſtructure, by the tiles and diſpoſition of the maſonry. London-wall, near Moorfields, is now the moſt entire part left of that ancient precinct. The gates, which received the great military roads, were four. The Prætorian way, the Saxon Watling-ſtreet, paſſed under one, on the ſite of the late Newgate; veſtiges having been diſcovered of the road in digging above Holborn-bridge: it turned down to Dowgate, or more properly Dur-gate, or Water-gate, where there was a Trajectus or Ferry, to join it to the Watling-ſtreet, which was continued to Dover. The Hermin-ſtreet paſſed under Cripplegate; and a vicinal way went under Aldgate, by Bethnal-green, towards Oldford, a paſs over the river Lee to Durſleiton, the modern Leyton, in Eſſex.

When the Romans quitted Britain, the Britons maintained poſſeſſion of London againſt the Saxons for at leaſt nine years; during the heptarchy, it became the capital of the kingdom of Eſſex, and the emporium of many nations, and Sebert, the firſt Chriſtian king of Eſſex, founded a church, which he dedicated to St. Paul. Alfred made it the capital of all England, as it has ever ſince continued, its proſperity fluctuating according to the variations of early times, but on the whole generally advancing.

Charters. William the Conqueror, ſoon after his acceſſion, granted to the citizens of London, that all laws relating to them, which were in force in the time of Edward the Confeſſor ſhould be confirmed; that the ſons of the citizens ſhould inherit the effects of their fathers and no one do wrong. This grant, Dr. Brady obſerves, if it can properly be called a charter, is the earlieſt charter of incorporation exiſting; but he conſiders it rather as an inſtrument of protection than a charter. It has however been generally conſidered as a charter, for it has been referred to and renewed in many ſubſequent charters, down to the reign of Charles II. who in general terms granted a full renewal of all the charters and privileges beſtowed by his predeceſſors from the days of William of Normandy. The different monarchs who ſo favoured this city, granted to the citizens many rights and immunities, the moſt important of which are in full force at this day.

Government. At the time of the conqueſt, the chief officer of London was called the port-reeve, or port-grave, from two Saxon words, ſignifying chief governor of a harbour; the title was at that time not uncommon, and is

not

not now entirely out of uſe. In ſubſequent times, he was called prpvoſt, being a name more conformable to the Roman idiom, and yet not altogether unlike that of portgrave; but in the reign of Henry II., the Norman title of maire was brought into uſe, and ſoon rendered Engliſh by ſpelling it Mayor. In proceſs of time, as the importance of the capital was more ſenſibly felt, and the rights and privileges of the citizens better underſtood and confirmed, the mayor gained the title of lord, and the ſtyle of right honourable, which he has ever ſince retained. Under him the city is governed by its aldermen, recorder, ſheriffs, chamberlain, and common ſerjeant, with their proper officers.

Lord Mayor. By virtue of an act of the common council, made in 1476, the lord mayor is annually choſen on Michaelmas day; for which purpoſe, the liverymen aſſemble in Guildhall, and by holding up of hands, chooſe two of the ſenior aldermen below the chair, who being returned to the court of lord mayor and aldermen, the ſenior alderman is commonly declared lord mayor elect. Soon afterwards he is preſented to the lord chancellor (as his majeſty's repreſentative) for his approbation; and on the ninth of November following is ſworn into the office of mayor at Guildhall, and before the barons of the Exchequer at Weſtminſter. In the morning of of the ſaid day, the aldermen and ſheriffs repair to the lord mayor's reſidence, whence they attend him to Guildhall in a moſt magnificent proceſſion. From Guildhall they go in coaches to Three Cranes-ſtairs, where they embark in ſplendid barges for Weſtminſter-hall, and return in the ſame way to Blackfriars-bridge, whence they proceed in coaches to Guildhall, and are moſt ſumptuouſly feaſted by the chief magiſtrate; whoſe entertainment is frequently honoured with the preſence of princes, nobles, miniſters of ſtate, foreign embaſſadors, and other perſons of the higheſt diſtinction. Although the office of lord mayor is elective, yet his authority does not ceaſe on the demiſe or abdication of the king, as that of the commiſſion officers does; and in ſuch caſes, the lord mayor of London is ſaid to be the principal officer of the kingdom. His power is very great; for he is not only the king's repreſentative in the civil government of the city, but likewiſe firſt commiſſioner of the lieutenancy, perpetual coroner and eſcheator within the city and liberties of London, and borough of Southwark, chief juſtice of oyer and terminer, and gaol-delivery of Newgate, judge of the courts of wardmote at the election of aldermen; conſervator of the rivers Thames and Medway, whereby he is empowered, if any citizen or apprentice of London be carried away, and by force

detained on ſhipboard, by his warrant, to compel the maſter of ſuch ſhip or veſſel to releaſe the ſaid citizen. The lord mayor, is alſo a perpetual commiſſioner in all affairs relating to the river Lea, and chief butler of the kingdom at all coronations, having a fee for that ſervice of a golden cup and cover, with a golden ewer. The lord mayor, upon all public occaſions, is cloathed according to the ſeaſon, either in ſcarlet or purple robes richly furred, with a velvet hood and golden chain, or collar of S. S. with a rich jewel appendant; and when abroad, he is attended by a great number of his officers, before and on each ſide; and when on foot, his train is ſupported by a page, and the city ſword and mace carried before him, attended by the ſheriff's. The officers belonging to the lord mayor, for the ſupport of his dignity, are the ſword-bearer, who for the expence of his table has a very conſiderable annual allowance; the common hunt, common crier, and water bailiff, who have all liberal ſalaries, or perquiſites, with each the title of eſquire; together with the three ſerjeant carvers, three ſerjeants of the chamber, a ſerjeant of the channel, two yeomen of the chamber, four yeomen of the water-ſide, a yeoman of the channel, an under water bailiff, ſix young men waiters, three meal weighers, two yeomen of the wood wharf, and the foreign-taker.

Aldermen. The title alderman is derived from the Saxon, in which language it was applied as a term of precedence, not denoting according to its liberal import, that the individual who bore it was the moſt aged, but the moſt honourable perſon in his community. In London there are twenty-ſix aldermen, correſponding with the number of wards into which the city is divided, each alderman having peculiar juriſdiction over one ward. The office of alderman was annual until the 17th Richard II., 1394, when it was enacted, that they ſhould continue during life, or during good behaviour. The aldermen of London having anciently become ſo by purchaſe, occaſioned great jealouſies and heart-burnings among the commonalty; for the allaying of which, and preventing the like for the future, it was in the year 1402 by the common council, enacted, that they ſhould be elective; the manner of which election has ſeveral times varied. But in the year 1714, by the common council of the city, it was enacted, that from thenceforth in all elections of aldermen, there ſhould be choſen only one citizen by the inhabitants of every ward deſtitute of an alderman, and the perſon ſo elected, to be returned by the lord mayor (or other returning officer duly qualified to hold a court of wardmote) to the court of lord mayor and aldermen, by whom the perſon ſo returned is to be admitted, and ſworn

into the office of alderman. A ſtatute 11 Geo. I. c. 18, alſo regulates the manner of taking polls when demanded, and the qualifications of voters in the election of theſe and other officers in the city. The aldermen of London are the ſecond conſtituent part of the city legiſlature, and all that have paſſed the chair, and three under it, are by charter, perpetual juſtices of peace within the city; and by the ſame power, they are by virtue of their office exempt from ſerving on inqueſts, juries, &c. as they are likewiſe without the city from pariſh offices. The court held by them, together with the other courts in the city of London, are mentioned in Vol. II. p. 465.

Sheriffs. In London and Middleſex there are two ſheriffs; the beginning of which cuſtom ſeems to be founded on the charter of king John, who granted the ſheriffwick of London and Middleſex to the mayor and citizens of London, at the farm of 300l. *per annum*; ſo that being a grant in fee of the ſheriffwick to them as a corporation, they had a right to name one or more officers, in order to execute the ſame, and they thought it proper to name two officers indifferently to execute both offices, both of whom execute as one ſheriff, though the writ in Middleſex is directed to them as one, in London it is to both. The reaſon of this difference ſeems to be, that before this grant of the ſheriffwick to the corporation, the corporation nominated to the crown, and the crown appointed the ſheriffs for London; and the London ſheriffs were reſponſible to the king for the London profits of the ſheriffwick; and that was the reaſon why two were appointed, that both might be reſponſible, and this nomination was, that the citizens might exhibit to the king reſponſible perſons; and that ſeems to be the reaſon that in many of the corporations that are cities and counties, there are two ſheriffs. But when by the charter of king John, the ſheriffwick of London and Middleſex, was granted to the citizens as a perpetual fee-farm, then they elected their ſheriffs, who before were nominated for London only, and the election of the two was for both ſheriffwicks, but the directions of the king's writs were as before, viz. in London to the two ſheriffs, and in Middleſex as if there was only one. The two ſheriffs regularly make but one officer, and therefore if one of them die, the office is at an end until another is choſen, and the courts of Weſtminſter can award no proceſs to the other. The election is by the liverymen on Midſummer-day in every year; the ſheriffs entering on their office on the Michaelmas-day following. In 1748, the corporation of London made a bye-law, impoſing a fine of 600l. upon every perſon who, being elected, ſhould refuſe to ſerve the office of ſheriff.

RECORDER. The qualifications of the recorder of the city, are thus ſet down in one of the books of the chamber. That "he ſhall be, and is wont to be, one of the moſt skilful and "virtuous apprentices of the law of the whole kingdom: "whoſe office is to ſit on the right hand of the mayor, in "recording pleas, and paſſing judgments; and by whom "records and proceſſes, had before the mayor and aldermen "at Great St. Martin's, ought to be recorded by word of "mouth before the judges aſſigned there to correct errors. "The mayor and aldermen have therefore uſed commonly to "ſet forth all other buſineſſes, touching the city, before the "king and his council, as alſo in certain of the king's courts, "by Mr. Recorder, as a chief man endued with wiſdom, and "eminent for eloquence." His oath is well, and faithfully, to render all the judgments of the huſtings, after the mayor and aldermen ſhould meet concerning their pleas, and agreed together; and alſo all other judgments touching the city of London, &c. And that he ſhall do juſtice as well to poor as rich. And that all the pleas of the huſtings, preſently after the huſtings is finiſhed, he ſhall overſee, order and cauſe to be enrolled, according to the things pleaded, &c. And that he ſhall come prepared to diſpatch the buſineſs of the city, &c. when he ſhall be lawfully warned by the mayor and bailiffs. He takes place in councils and in courts, before any man that has not been mayor, and learnedly delivers the ſentences of the whole court.

CHAMBERLAIN. The chamberlain is an officer of great repute and truſt; and though annually choſen on Midſummer day, yet not diſplaced, but generally continued during life, if no juſt and great crimes are made out againſt him. He had the keeping of the monies, lands, and goods of the city orphans, or takes good ſecurity for the payment thereof, when the parties came to age. And to that end he was deemed in the law a ſole corporation, to him and his ſucceſſors for orphans; and therefore a bond, or recognizance made to him and his ſucceſſors, was recoverable by his ſucceſſors. This officer has a court peculiarly belonging to him. His office may be termed a public treaſury, collecting the cuſtoms, monies, and yearly revenues, and all other payments belonging to the corporation of the city.

THE COMMON SERJEANT. The duty of this officer is to attend the lord mayor and court of aldermen on court days, and to be in the council with them, on all occaſions, within and without the precincts or liberties of the city. He takes care of orphans' eſtates, either by taking account of them, or ſigns their indentures, before their paſſing the lord mayor and court of aldermen. And likewiſe to let, ſet and manage the orphans' eſtates,

eſtates, according to his judgment, to their beſt advantage. He ſits with the recorder as a judge at the ſeſſions of oyer and terminer in the Old Bailey.

Town Clerk. This officer keeps the original charters of the city, the books, rolls, and other records, wherein are regiſtered the acts and proceedings of the city. He is to attend the lord mayor and aldermen at their courts.

Coroner. Although the lord mayor is coroner of the city, yet he has an officer appointed to that portion of his duties, which are preciſely ſimilar to thoſe of coroner for any other county.

City Remembrancer. This officer is to attend the lord mayor on certain days; his buſineſs being to put his lordſhip in mind of the ſelect days he is to go abroad with the aldermen, &c. He is to attend daily at the parliament houſe during the ſeſſions, and to report to the lord mayor their tranſactions.

Common Hunt. When this officer had any buſineſs, it was to take care of the pack of hounds belonging to the mayor and citizens, and to attend them in hunting when they pleaſed. Formerly, on the north ſide of Moorfields, ſtood the *Dogge-houſe*, in which were kept the hounds for the amuſement of the lord mayor, and which was the reſidence of the common hunt. He is an officer, the ſecond in rank in the *Prætorian* eſtabliſhment. Maſter ſword-bearer alone takes place of him. The office is continued although its duties have ceaſed.

Common Crier. It belongs to the common crier and the ſerjeant at arms to ſummons all executors and adminiſtrators of freemen to appear, and to bring in inventories of the perſonal eſtates of freemen, within two months after their deceaſe: and he is to have notice of the appraiſements. He is alſo to attend the lord mayor on ſet days, and at the courts held weekly by the mayor and aldermen.

Water Bailiff. This officer is to look after the preſervation of the river Thames againſt all encroachments; and to look after the fiſhermen, for the preſervation of the young fry, to prevent the deſtroying them by unlawful nets. For that end there are juries for each county, that has any part of it lying on the ſides or ſhores of the river, which juries, ſummoned by the water-bailiff at certain times, make inquiry of all offences relating to the river and the fiſh; and make their preſentments accordingly. He is alſo bound to attend the lord mayor on ſet days in the week.

Beſides theſe there are many other officers, rendered neceſſary by the different eſtates and truſts, veſted in the corporation of the city of London, as the regiſter of the orphans' fund, who acts under the chamberlain; the bridge-maſters who take care of all matters relating to property derived to the city from its right in London-bridge, with many others; and there is a long

long liſt of perſons employed in the ſervice, or to maintain the ſtate and dignity of the chief magiſtrate.

Common Councilmen. By a law of the common council made on the laſt day of July, in the 8th of Richard II., it was ordained, That the common council ſhould be choſen by the wards fifteen days after St. Gregory; and that they ſhould chuſe thoſe who had ſerved the year before, or others; and that once a quarter at leaſt the common council ſhould be aſſembled to conſult and take care of the affairs of the city; and in the ninth year of the ſame king, there was a confirmation and ſettlement of the choice of common councilmen by the wards, by four, ſix, and eight, according to the extent of each ward.

Ward. The time when the city of London was firſt divided into wards is not known, nor does the number firſt conſtituted appear on record. In 1284, they appear to have been twenty-four; in 1393, the great ward of Farringdon being very much increaſed both in number of houſes and inhabitants, was by parliament divided into the inward and outward wards, whereby the number was increaſed to twenty-five; and in 1550, the citizens having purchaſed of Edward VI. the borough of Southwark, with divers privileges thereunto belonging, erected it into a twenty-ſixth ward; but it ſeems, the power granted them by charter not proving ſufficient to ſupport their title, by excluding the juſtices of the peace for the county of Surrey, from interfering in the government, it is only a nominal ward: however it ſerves to dignify the ſenior alderman, called the father of the city, who generally by his great age is rendered unable to undergo the fatigue of buſineſs. Including it with the reſt, the names and characteriſtic circumſtances are as follow.

Aldersgate Ward. This ward takes its name from one of the northern gates of the city; and is ſituated partly within and partly without the wall. It has an alderman and two deputies, one within the gate and one without, and eight common councilmen.

Aldgate. This ward takes its name from the eaſt-gate of the city, called Aldgate or anciently Ealdgate. It has an alderman, his deputy, and ſix common councilmen, including the deputy.

Basinghall, or Bassishaw. This ward is very ſmall, conſiſting of one ſtreet, called Baſinghall-ſtreet, from Baſinghall, the principal houſe in it. It has an alderman, his deputy, and four common councilmen.

Billingsgate. This ward is ſituated on the river ſide; as to the derivation of the name, authors are not agreed; but

but the moſt probable opinion refers us to ſome eminent perſon, who, in ancient times, had large poſſeſſions in this part of the city, & held in this ward by the ſame tenure, as the Baſings, &c. held other wards. It has an alderman and ten common councilmen.

BISHOPSGATE WARD. The name of this ward is derived from the gate, which ſtands almoſt in its centre. It has an alderman, two deputies, one without the gate and another within, and ſix common councilmen.

BREAD STREET WARD. Takes its name from the principal ſtreet in it, called Bread-ſtreet, which, in old time, was the bread-market. It has an alderman, his deputy, and twelve more common councilmen.

BRIDGE WARD (within). The name of this ward is derived from its connexion with London-bridge; and it begins ſouthward at the end of the bridge next Southwark. It has an alderman and his deputy, included in the fifteen common councilmen.

BRIDGE WARD (without). Conſiſts of the borough of Southwark, but for the reaſon already mentioned, it has only an alderman, whoſe duties are nominal.

BROAD STREET. This ward derives its name from that part of it called Broad-ſtreet, which lies almoſt in the centre thereof, and in ancient times was peculiarly diſtinguiſhed from the reſt of the ſtreets in the metropolis by the name of Broad, there being few before the fire of London, of ſuch a breadth within the walls. It has an alderman, with his deputy and nine other common councilmen.

CANDLEWICK. This ward took its name from a ſtreet called Candlewick or Candlewright-ſtreet, a place remarkable for wax and tallow-chandlers, or candle-wrights, as they were anciently termed. It has an alderman, his deputy, and ſeven other common councilmen.

CASTLE BAYNARD WARD. Derives its name from an ancient caſtle built by one Baynard, a nobleman of great authority, who came from Normandy with the conqueror, and which was ſituated on the bank near the Thames. It has an alderman, a deputy, and nine other common councilmen.

CHEAP. The name of this ward is taken from the Saxon word Chèpe, a market, kept in this diviſion of the city in thoſe days. This market was peculiarly known by the name of Weſt Cheap, from its ſituation, to diſtinguiſh it from the market between Candlewick-ſtreet and Tower-ſtreet, which from its ſituation alſo was called Eaſt Cheap. The ward has an alderman, a deputy, and eleven other common councilmen.

COLEMAN-

COLEMAN-STREET WARD. Has its name from the principal ſtreet therein, built by one Coleman; or probably it derived its diſtinction from the many dealers in coal, which anciently inhabited it; for that was the common method our forefathers obſerved in giving names to the ſeveral ſtreets of this city, either on account of the trades carried on there, or for ſome remarkable building on that ſite. There are an alderman, and including the deputy, ſix common councilmen.

CORDWAINER'S-STREET WARD. This name is obviouſly derived from the occupation of the principal inhabitants, who were cordwainers, or ſhoemakers, curriers, and other workers of leather. The ward has an alderman, a deputy, and eight other common councilmen.

CORNHILL WARD. This name is derived from the principal ſtreet, which was anciently a great corn market. It is governed by an alderman and ſix common councilmen, including the deputy.

CRIPPLEGATE WARD. Takes its name from the north-weſt gate of the city; it conſiſts of two parts; one lying within Cripplegate and London-wall, and the other to the extent of the freedom, without. This ward has an alderman, with a deputy and ſeven common councilmen within, and a deputy and three common councilmen without the walls.

DOWGATE WARD. Various are the opinions concerning the etymology of this ward. Some derive it from Dour-gate, which they ſay ſignifies Watergate, and ſtood in the wall next the Thames, at the bottom of the hill, others will have it derived from its ſituation, which is a great deſcent, and the gate which ſtood at the bottom of the hill: which laſt opinion has prevailed ſo far, that modern writers have given it the name of Downgate; while in common uſe, the citizens differ from both, and call it Dowgate ward. It has an alderman, a deputy, and ſeven other common councilmen.

FARRINGDON (within). This ward, together with Farringdon without, had in ancient times but one alderman, and that not by election, but by inheritance or purchaſe. This right deſcended to Nicholas Farendon, a goldſmith, who was four times mayor, and was by his will, dated 1361, tranſmitted to his poſterity, in whoſe poſſeſſion it continued eighty-two years, and ſtill retains the family name. The addition of within is on account of this part of Farringdon wards lying within the walls of London, containing the ancient wards of Newgate and Ludgate. And this addition was given to each part by act of parliament, when that large poſſeſſion of the Farendons was divided into two aldermanries to be governed by

by two aldermen. This ward has an alderman, his deputy, and ſixteen other common councilmen.

FARRINGDON (Without). This ward is of very great extent, and is the furtheſt ward weſt in the city. It is governed by an alderman, his deputy, and fifteen other common council-men.

LANGBOURNE WARD. To the title of this ward is added *Fenny about*, and the derivation of both names is thus given. Langbourne takes its name from a rivulet or long bourne, of ſweet water, which anciently broke out of a ſpring near to the place where Magpye-alley, adjoining to St. Catherine's Coleman's church now ſtands, which ran down the ſtreet weſtward, and through Lombard-ſtreet, as far as the weſt end of St. Mary Woolnoth's church, where, turning ſouth, and dividing itſelf into ſeveral rills, ſhares, or ſtreams, it gave name to Sharebourne-lane, called alſo Southbourne-lane, becauſe it ran ſouth to the river Thames; and by its ſpreading near the ſpring head, the contiguous ſtreet became ſo ſwampy, mooriſh or fenny, eſpecially about the church, which ſtood in the broadway between Mincing-lane and Rood-lane, that it was thence called Fen-church-ſtreet. The ward alſo partook of the ſame name, and was enrolled in the city records by the appellation of Langbourne and Fenny about. In this ward are, an alderman, a deputy, and ten other common councilmen.

LIME-STREET WARD. Derives its name from that of a principal ſtreet, and is governed by an alderman, a deputy, and three other common councilmen.

PORTSOKEN WARD. This name, which has given occaſion for ſo many puns, is derived from a Latin and a Saxon word, ſignifying a gate and a franchiſe. The origin of the title is deſcribed by an old writer in theſe terms. This Portſoken, which ſignifies a franchiſe at the gate, was ſome time a guild, and had its beginning in the reign of Edgar, between ſeven and eight hundred years ago, when thirteen knights, well beloved of the king and realm for ſervices by them done, requeſted to have a certain portion of land on the eaſt part of the city, left deſolate and forſaken by the inhabitants, by reaſon of too much ſervitude. They beſought the king to have this land, with the liberty of a guild, for ever. The king granted their requeſt on the following conditions, to wit, That each of them ſhould victoriouſly accompliſh three combats, one above the ground, one under the ground, and the third in the water: and after this, at a certain day, in Eaſt Smithfield, they ſhould run with ſpears againſt all comers; all which was glorioufly performed. The king accordingly gave them their guild, and fixed their boundaries.

The

The ward has an alderman and five common councilmen, including the deputy.

QUEENHITHE WARD. This word receives its name from the hithe, or harbour for large boats, barges, or lighters, and even for ships, which in ancient times anchored at that place, as they do now at Billingsgate; the timber-bridge or lock on London-bridge being drawn up for their passage through; Queenhithe being then the principal key, wharf, or strand for lading and unlading in the heart of the city. It is governed by an alderman, a deputy, and five common councilmen.

TOWER-STREET WARD. The derivation of its name is sufficiently obvious: it is governed by an alderman, deputy, and eleven other common councilmen.

VINTRY WARD. This ward takes its name from a part thereof called the Vintrie by the ancients, occupied by vintners or wine merchants from Bourdeaux, settled on the bank of the river Thames; at which place they landed their wines, and were obliged to sell them in forty days, till the 28th of Edward I. who, by privy seal, granted longer time, and certain privileges to those merchants. It has an alderman and nine common councilmen, one of whom is deputy.

COMPANIES. For the greater encouragement of the trade and navigation of this city and kingdom, king Athelstan, in the year 928, made a law, that, if a merchant on his own account make three voyages into the Straits, he shall be advanced in honour, and enjoy the privilege of a gentleman. And as an encouragement to foreign merchants to frequent the ports of this kingdom, it was granted by Henry III. in his great charter, that they (exclusive of such as were previously precluded) should not only have free egress and regress from, and to all the ports of the kingdom, but likewise the liberty of travelling into all parts thereof, to negociate their trade, toll free, except in time of war. Guilds, companies, or incorporations were anciently either secular or religious, established by the king. The secular guilds were either *Gilda mercatoria*, a merchant guild, or *Gilda mercatorium*, a guild of merchants, tradesmen and artizans; each of which guilds were composed of an alderman, chaplain, eschevins, elders, and inferior members, as appears by a convention made between the dean and canons of *St. Martin's-le-grand*, and the guild or company of sadlers towards the close of the twelfth century. And the religious guilds, founded for devotion and alms deeds, consisted of an alderman, master, brothers,

brothers, and ſiſters. That guilds or gilds are of great antiquity in this city, is apparent by the devotional guilds of St. Andrew Wardrobe, St. Dunſtan's in the Eaſt, and St. Lawrence Poulteney. But that the ſecular are of a more ancient date, is manifeſt from the companies of weavers and bakers. The following liſt of the guilds, or companies of London, with the annual charities which they diſtribute, and the principal circumſtances attending them, is extracted from Poſtlethwaite's dictionary of commerce, publiſhed in 1774, with a few additions to each article. They are arranged according to their precedence, beginning with the twelve principal, of one of which the lord mayors have generally made themſelves free at their election, if they were not ſo before; for they are not only the moſt ancient, but the richeſt, many of them having had the honour of kings and princes to be their members, the apartments of their halls being fit to entertain a monarch.

1. MERCERS. £. 3000. Excluſive of 20 per cent. paid yearly to the widows of ſubſcribing clergymen during life, purſuant to a propoſal accepted in 1698, when they ſettled a fund of 14,000 *l.* a year for that purpoſe. Date of incorporation, 17 Rich. II. Hall in Cheapſide.
2. GROCERS. £. 700.—Date of incorporation, 1345. Hall, Grocer's-alley, or Grocer's-hall-court, Poultry.
3. DRAPERS. £. 4000.—Date of incorporation, 1439. Hall, Throgmorton-ſtreet.
4. FISHMONGERS. £. 800.—Date of Incorporation, 7 Rich. II. 1384. Hall, Thames-ſtreet.
5. GOLDSMITHS. £. 1000.—They had a privilege from Edward IV. to inſpect, try, and regulate all gold and ſilver wares throughout the kingdom, and to puniſh all workers in either, that adulterated the ſame. Date of incorporation, 26 Henry II. 1180. Hall, Foſter-lane, Cheapſide.
6. SKINNERS. £. 700.—Date of incorporation, 1 Edward III. 1327. Hall, Dowgate-hill.
7. MERCHANT TAYLORS. £. 2000.—They were once ſtyled tailors, and linen armourers.—Date of incorporation, 5 Edward IV. 1466. Hall, Threadneedle-ſtreet.
8. HABERDASHERS. £. 5300.—Were anciently ſtyled Milaners, becauſe they dealt moſt in goods which came from Milan. Date of incorporation, 26 Hen. VI. 1447. Hall, Maiden-lane.
9. SALTERS. £. 500.—Date of incorporation, 1394. Hall, St. Swithin's-lane.

10. IRON-

10. IRONMONGERS. £. 1800.—In 1724, Mr. Betton, a Turkey merchant, left 26,000*l.* in truſt; one moiety of the profits of it always to be applied to the ranſom of Britiſh captives from Mooriſh ſlavery; the other for the poor of the company, and to the charity ſchools in the city, and its liberty. Date of incorporation, 3 Edward IV. 1464. Hall, Fenchurch-ſtreet.

11. VINTNERS. £. 600.—Date of incorporation, 15 Henry VII. 1437. Hall, Thames-ſtreet.

12. CLOTHWORKERS. £. 1400.—Date of incorporation, 1482. Hall, Mincing-lane.

13. DYERS.—This company, which was anciently one of the twelve, was incorporated 11 Edward IV. 1472. Among other privileges of this ſociety, that of keeping ſwans upon the river Thames is one. Hall, Little Elbow-lane.

14. BREWERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Henry VI. 1438. Hall, Addle-ſtreet.

15. LEATHER-SELLERS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Henry VI. 1442. Henry VII. made them wardens, inſpectors of ſheep, lamb, and calves' leather, throughout the kingdom. Hall, Little St. Helen's.

16. PEWTERERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Edward IV. 1474. By act of parliament, 25 Henry VIII. their wardens had the inſpection of pewter throughout England. Hall, Lime-ſtreet.

17. BARBER-SURGEONS.—In the reign of Henry VIII. the ſurgeons of this company, then but nineteen, were exempted by Parliament from ward and pariſh offices, and from military ſervice. The art of ſurgery anciently being ſolely practiſed by the barbers of this city, they were, by letters patent of Edward IV. anno 1461, incorporated by the name of the maſters, or governors of the myſtery or commonalty of the Barbers of London. Some time after, others aſſuming the practice of ſurgery, the Barbers in the third of Henry VIII. 1512, obtained an act of parliament to prevent all perſons from practiſing ſurgery within the city of London and ſeven miles of the ſame. In the ſixth year of the ſaid reign, 1515, the practiſing Barbers or Surgeons of this city, in number nineteen, were, in conſideration of their conſtant attendance on patients, not only by Parliament exempted from ſerving ward and pariſh offices, but likewiſe from all military ſervices. By virtue of the firſt mentioned act of parliament, divers perſons (not Barbers), being examined and admitted as practitioners

in

in the art of ſurgery, they ſoon erected themſelves into a ſociety, ſeparate from that of Barbers; which the parliament taking into conſideration, for their mutual intereſts united them, by the appellation of the maſters or governors of the myſtery or commonalty of barbers and ſurgeons of London. And as the ſaid act ſtrictly injoins all perſons practiſing the art of ſhaving, not to intermeddle with that of ſurgery, except what belongs to the drawing of teeth; ſo does it likewiſe all ſurgeons from following the practice of ſhaving. However, all the above-mentioned encouragements could not prevent the ſurgeons from falling into a ſcandalous ignorance and extortion, whereby the lives of many were deſtroyed, and the ſubſtance of others baſely extorted. Yet nevertheleſs they ſhamefully continued to haraſs perſons more worthy and ſkilful than themſelves; and that for no other reaſon than their extenſive charity and univerſal benevolence, in adminiſtering proper remedies to objects of commiſeration, at their own expence: which the parliament in the year 1544, taking into conſideration, occaſioned their laying open the practice of ſurgery, as an encouragement for all perſons ſkilled in the nature of herbs, roots, and waters, to exert themſelves in the exerciſe thereof, for the relief and cure of wounded and diſtreſſed objects of compaſſion. By ſtatute 18 Geo. II. c. 15. the corporation of Barber-ſurgeons was diſſolved, and the ſurgeons of London were made a ſeparate body. The company of Barbers are poſſeſſed of their former magnificent hall in Monkwell-ſtreet, to tranſact their affairs in: and the company of Surgeons have built a new and elegant hall in the Old Bailey, where they have a theatre for the diſſection of human bodies.

18. CUTLERS.—This company was incorporated by letters patent of Henry V. 1417. The haft and ſheath-makers ſome time after were joined to this company. Hall, Cloak-lane.

19. BAKERS.—This fraternity is of great antiquity, being recognized in 1155; but does not appear to have been incorporated till 1307. Hall, Harp-lane.

20. WAX-CHANDLERS.—Date of incorporation, 1 Rich. III. 1483. Hall, Maiden-lane.

21. TALLOW-CHANDLERS.—Date of incorporation, 2 Edw. IV. 1463. Hall, Dowgate-hill.

22. ARMOURERS.—The Braziers are united to this company. Date of incorporation, 1423. Hall, Coleman-ſtreet.

23. GIRDLERS.—Queen Elizabeth incorporated the Pinners and Wire-drawers with them. Hall, Baſinghall-ſtreet.

24. BUTCHERS.—This appears to be a very ancient fraternity; for in the 26th Henry II. 1180, it was fined in the Exchequer as an adulterine guild, for being ſet up without the king's licence. However, it was not incorporated till the 3d James I. 1605. Hall, Pudding-lane.

25. SADLERS.—This company is of great antiquity, though not incorporated till the reign of Edward I. and was highly honoured by Frederick, Prince of Wales; not only in accepting its freedom, but in condeſcending to be its perpetual maſter. Hall, Cheapſide.

26. CARPENTERS.—Date of incorporation, 1344. Hall, London-wall.

27. CORDWAINERS.—Date of incorporation, 11 Henry IV. 1410. Hall, Diſtaff-lane.

28. PAINTERS-STAINERS.—Date of incorporation, 26 Elizabeth, 1582. Hall, Little Trinity-lane.

29. CURRIERS.—This ſociety is of conſiderable antiquity, though not incorporated till 1605. Hall, at Cripplegate.

30. MASONS.—This company had a grant of arms in 1477, though not incorporated till 29 Charles II. 1677. Hall, Maſon's-alley, Baſinghall-ſtreet.

31. PLUMBERS.—Though this fraternity is of conſiderable ſtanding, it was not incorporated till 9 James I. 1611. Hall, Chequer-yard, Dowgate-hill.

32. INNHOLDERS.—Date of incorporation, 6 Henry VIII. 1315. Hall, Elbow-lane.

33. FOUNDERS.—Date of incorporation, 12 James I. 1614. All braſs weights made in London, or three miles from it, muſt be ſized with the company's ſtandard, and have their mark; the avoirdupois to be ſealed at Guildhall, and the troy at Goldſmith's-hall. And the company is impowered by charter to view and ſearch all braſs weights, and braſs and copper ware made within the diſtrict. Hall, Lothbury.

34. POULTERERS.—Date of incorporation, 19 Henry VII. 1504. They have no hall.

35. COOKS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Edward IV. 1480. Hall, Alderſgate-ſtreet.

36. COOPERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Henry VII. 1501. By an act of parliament in the ſucceeding reign, they were impowered to ſearch and guage all beer, ale, and ſo.p veſſels, within the city of London, and two miles round the ſuburbs of the ſam ; for which they were allowed one farthing for each cask. Hall, Baſinghall-ſtreet.

37. TYLERS

37. TYLERS AND BRICKLAYERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Elizabeth, 1568. Hall, in a court in Leadenhall-ſtreet.

38. BOWYERS.—This was a fraternity by preſcription, till the 18th James I. 1620.; when it was incorporated. That the incorporating of this fraternity ſhould be deferred to this time is ſomewhat ſurpriſing, though not ſo much as that of its being incorporated then, when the military engine called the bow, was almoſt rendered uſeleſs by the invention of fire-arms. They have at preſent no hall, though anciently they had one in Noble-ſtreet.

39. FLETCHERS.—This is only a company by preſcription. Hall, St. Mary-Axe.

40. BLACKSMITHS.—This ancient guild or fraternity continued ſo by preſcription till incorporated by queen Elizabeth in 1571. Hall on Lambert-hill.

41. JOINERS AND CEILERS.—Date of incorporation, 11 Elizabeth, 1569. Hall, Friar's-lane, Thames-ſtreet.

42. WEAVERS.—This fraternity ſeems to be the moſt ancient guild of this city; for it appears that in the reign of Henry I. they paid an annual rent of 16*l.* to the crown for their immunities. Their privileges were confirmed at Wincheſter, by letters patent of Henry II. ſtill in the company's poſſeſſion, but without date. Hall, Baſinghall-ſtreet.

43. WOOLMEN.—Though this fraternity is of great antiquity, and probably coeval with the wool trade of this kingdom; yet it is only a community by preſcription, and not by charter. However, it has the honour of being one of the city companies. They have neither livery nor hall.

44. SCRIVENERS.—Date of incorporation, 14 James I. 1616.

45. FRUITERERS.—Date of incorporation, 3 James I. 1605. They have no hall.

46. PLAISTERERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Henry VII. 1501. Hall, Addle-ſtreet.

47. STATIONERS.—Date of incorporation, 3 and 4 Philip and Mary, 1557. This company, which alſo includes Bookſellers, Letter-founders, Printers, and Bookbinders, have a ſtock which is employed in printing almanacks, primers, pſalters, many ſchool books, &c. of which they have the ſole privilege, by virtue of a grant from the crown. They pay about 300*l.* a-year in penſions and other charities. Hall, Stationers'-court.

48. EMBROIDERERS.—Date of incorporation, 3 Elizabeth, 1591. Hall, Gutter-lane.

49. UPHOLDERS.—Date of incorporation, 2 Charles I. 1627. No hall.

50. MUSICIANS.—Date of incorporation, 2 James I. 1604. No hall.

51. TURNERS.—Date of incorporation, 2 James I. 1604. Hall on College-hill.

52. BASKET-MAKERS.—This is a company by preſcription, but when, or by whom erected into a fellowſhip, is unknown. They have neither livery nor hall.

53. GLAZIERS.—The glaſs-painters are incorporated with them, by charter 13 Charles I. 1637. Their hall was conſumed in the great conflagration in 1666, ſince which time they have had none.

54. HORNERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Charles I. 1638. They have neither livery nor hall.

55. FARRIERS.—Date of incorporation, 25 Charles II. 1673. No hall.

56. PAVIOURS.—This is a fellowſhip by preſcription, and not by charter; wherefore it may be juſtly preſumed to have been one of the ancient adulterine guilds that were erected without a royal licence. They have neither livery nor hall.

57. LORIMERS.—Though this appears to be an ancient fraternity, yet they were only incorporated by letters patent of the 10th queen Anne, 1712. Hall, London-wall.

58. APOTHECARIES.—They are exempt from ward and pariſh offices, and have a ſpacious phyſic garden at Cheliea; which, in 1721, was granted to the company for ever, by Sir Hans Sloane, bart. the lord of the manor, on condition of their paying a quit-rent of 5*l.* and continuing it always as a phyſic garden, and of preſenting every year to the Royal Society fifty ſamples of different ſorts of plants there grown, till they amount to two thouſand. Date of incorporation, 4 James I. 1606. Hall, Blackfriars.

59. SHIPWRIGHTS.—This, which had been a ſociety by preſcription for divers ages, was incorporated 3 James I. 1605. They are without either livery or hall.

60. SPECTACLE-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 5 Charles I. 1630. Neither livery nor hall.

61. CLOCK MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1632. Neither livery nor hall.

62. GLOVERS.—Date of incorporation, 14 Charles I. 1638. Hall, Beech-lane.

63. COMB-

63. COMB-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1636. Neither livery nor hall.

64. FELT-MAKERS.—The felt or hat-makers being anciently a branch of the company of Haberdashers; they applied in the year 1576 for an exclusive charter, but being opposed by the Haberdashers, their endeavours proved abortive; but all disputes at last being happily adjusted, they were incorporated 2 James I. 1604. They have no hall.

65. FRAME-WORK-KNITTERS.—Date of incorporation, 15 Charles II. Hall, Red-cross-street.

66. SILK-THROWERS.—The art of silk-throwing was first practised in London in the reign of queen Elizabeth, by foreigners, whose descendants and others, 1622, were constituted a fellowship of this city, and were incorporated 1630. They have neither hall nor livery.

67. SILKMEN.—Date of incorporation, 7 Charles I. 1631. Neither livery nor hall.

68. PIN-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 11 Charles I. 1636. Neither livery nor hall.

69. NEEDLE-MAKERS.—This society was incorporated by Oliver Cromwell, 1656. No hall.

70. GARDENERS.—Date of incorporation, 14 James I. 1616. Neither livery nor hall.

71. SOAP MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Charles I. 1638. They transact their business in Guildhall.

72. TIN-PLATE-WORKERS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Chas. II. 1670. Neither hall nor livery.

73. WHEELWRIGHTS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Charles II. 1670. Neither hall nor livery.

74. DISTILLERS.—Date of incorporation, 1638.

75. HATBAND MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Chas. I. 1638. Neither livery nor hall.

76. PATTEN-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 22 Chas. II. 1670. No hall.

77. GLASS-SELLERS AND LOOKING-GLASS-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 16 Charles II. 1664. No hall.

78. TOBACCO-PIPE MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 15 Charles II. 1663. Neither livery nor hall.

79. COACH AND HARNESS MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1677. Hall, Noble-street.

80. GUNSMITHS.—Date of incorporation, 13 Charles I. 1638. Neither livery nor hall.

81. GOLD AND SILVER WIRE-DRAWERS.—Date of incorporation, 21 James I. 1623. Neither livery nor hall.

82. LONGBOW-STRING-MAKERS.—This is a company by prescription. Neither livery nor hall.

83. CARD-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1629. Neither livery nor hall.

84. FAN-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 8 Anne, 1709. Neither livery nor hall.

85. WOODMONGERS.—This fraternity was incorporated with that of the Carmen of this city, by letters patent of the 3d James I. 1605, with whom they continued till the year 1668, when for their mal-practices, they judged it convenient (to avoid a greater puniſhment), to ſurrender their charter. By an act of common-council in 1694, they obtained a privilege for keeping one hundred and twenty carts (excluſive of the four hundred and twenty public ones kept by the carmen,) for the more effectual carrying on their buſineſs. This company, by an act of common council, had the management of the public carts committed to them, from 1661 to 1665, when by reaſon of their bad conduct, and ſiniſter practices, the charge of inſpection was returned to Chriſt's-hoſpital.

86. STARCH-MAKERS.—Date of incorporation, 1622, 20 James I. Neither hall nor livery.

87. FISHERMEN.—Date of incorporation, 3 James II. 1687. Neither livery, hall, nor arms.

88. PARISH CLERKS.—Date of incorporation, 17 Henry III. 1233. By a decree of the Star-chamber in 1625, they obtained a privilege to keep a preſs in their hall, for printing the weekly bills of mortality, by the perſon appointed by the archbiſhop of Canterbury. They are, by their charter, to make a report of all the weekly chriſtenings and burials in their ſeveral pariſhes every Tueſday. Hall, Wood-ſtreet.

89. THE CARMEN are a fellowſhip by act of common-council, with the title of free Carmen of the city of London. Neither hall nor livery.

90. THE PORTERS—Conſiſting of tackle and ticket-porters, are another fellowſhip. Neither hall, livery, nor arms.

91. THE WHERRYMEN AND LIGHTERMEN of this city, and neighbouring places, were by act of parliament in the latter end of the reign of King William, conſtituted a ſociety, to be under the direction of the court of lord mayor and aldermen. This ſociety pay to their poor about 800*l.* per annum, which chiefly ariſes from the Sunday ferries.

Upon the whole, it appears, that the companies are ninety-one, and they have fifty-two halls.

WEST-

WESTMINSTER. A moſt important portion of the metropolis, and next in conſideration to the city of London, is the city, or perhaps more properly, the borough of Weſtminſter. This diviſion of the metropolis is now ſo united with London, that in appearance, they form but one city; and in common ſpeech they are mentioned only as one.

As the very exiſtence of Weſtminſter is derived from the foundation of the abbey, it is neceſſary here ſlightly to trace the circumſtances by which they are connected, reſerving for a ſubſequent page, a more particular deſcription of that venerable ſtructure.

The foundation of Weſtminſter abbey, ſays Maitland in his Hiſtory of London, has been handed to us by many fabulous accounts, invented by the monks for private views: one of their pious frauds was to palm it upon St. Peter, the prince of the apoſtles. This is the invention of Abbot Wulfine, in the reign of Edward the Confeſſor. Another refers it to the imaginary reign of king Lucius. In this uncertainty we can determine only to adhere to thoſe writers who place its foundation by Sebert, on the ruins of a temple, dedicated by the heathen Saxons to Apollo. The place where this magnificent and ſtately ſtructure and city are ſituate, was anciently an iſland; which, from its being overſpread with thorns, received the appellation of Thorney, or iſland of Thorns; and the branch of the river which ſurrounded the ſame, now denominated Long-ditch, had its outflux from the river Thames, near the eaſt-end of Mancheſter-court, Channel-row; and interſecting King-ſtreet, glided along where Gardiner's-lane is ſituate, to Long-ditch; and croſſing Tothill-ſtreet, a little weſt of the gate-houſe, continued its courſe along the ſouth wall of the Abbey garden, to the Thames, where now the common ſewer is, which was erected over it.

This monaſtery, like moſt others of the kingdom, being deſtroyed by the cruel ravages and depredations of the Pagan Danes, was rebuilt by king Edgar, who not only endowed the ſame with divers lands and manors, but likewiſe, by his charter, Anno 969, granted it many ample privileges. This church being again reduced to very great extremities by Daniſh cruelties, it was reſtored to a much more flouriſhing condition than ever, by Edward the Confeſſor, who appropriated for that purpoſe one tenth of his eſtate, both real and perſonal; and pulling down the ſmall and ruinous building, erected in its ſtead a handſome ſtructure: then ſummoning his miniſters and nobility, he cauſed it to be conſecrated on the 28th of December, 1065, with the greateſt pomp and ſolemnity; and by ſeveral charters, not only confirmed all its ancient rights and privileges,

but likewiſe endowed the ſame with many rich manors, and additional immunities, viz. *Sac and Soc, Thol and Theam, Infangtheof, Gritbrich, Hamſoken, Pontage, Murage and Forſtal.* And that all the lands, tenements, and poſſeſſions thereunto belonging, in London and elſewhere, ſhould be exempt from all juriſdiction whatſoever, other than that of their own; and the convent to be free from the authority of the biſhop of London; and the church thereof, by the bull of Pope Nicholas the Second, conſtituted a place for the inauguration of the kings of England. And by the ſaid Edward's charter of Sanctuary, it became not only an aſylum for bankrupts, &c. but likewiſe a refuge for traitors, murderers, thieves, and the moſt abandoned miſcreants, who were ſuffered to live there in impunity, and open defiance of juſtice, to the great reproach of the pretended confeſſor. However, the great immunities in the charter drew people from all parts; which occaſioned the refugees to increaſe ſo faſt, that there was not room ſufficient in the Abbey church for the accommodation of the numerous inhabitants without incommoding the monks, wherefore Edward cauſed a church to be erected on the north ſide of the monaſtery, for the uſe of the inhabitants, and dedicated the ſame to Saint Margaret. The name of Weſt-minſter was not given, as ſome have ſuppoſed, to diſtinguiſh it from the Abbey of Grace on Tower-hill, called Eaſt-minſter: but from the church of Saint Paul in the city of London.

William the Conqueror, out of the great veneration he bore to the memory of his late dear friend Edward, no ſooner arrived in London, than he repaired to this church, where he offered a ſumptuous pall as a covering to his ſhrine, and fifty marks of ſilver, together with a very rich altar-cloth and two caſkets of gold; and the Chriſtmas-day following was ſolemnly crowned there. He was a great benefactor to this abbey, for, by no leſs than ſixteen charters, he not only confirmed all their ancient rights and immunities, but alſo granted them greater privileges and additional revenues.

In 1257, Henry III. granted to the abbot and convent of Weſtminſter a market and fair; and in 1352, Weſtminſter was by act of parliament conſtituted one of the ten towns in England, where the ſtaple, or market for wool, leather, woolfels, lead, and other ſtaple commodities, ſhould be perpetually held. Yet with all theſe inſtances of royal favour and protection, Weſtminſter was nothing more than a ſmall town entirely diſtinct from London. The Strand, which was the road leading from the one to the other, was open on either ſide to the Thames and to the fields. In 1385, this road was paved as far as the Savoy; and many years after Sir Robert Cecil build-

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ing a houſe at Ivy-bridge, his intereſt brought the pavement of the road to be extended thither, and many of the houſes of the nobility were erected in the Strand.

At the general ſuppreſſion of religious houſes by Henry VIII. the abbey was ſurrendered to him, by William Benſon, the abbot, and ſeventeen of the monks, on the 16th of January, 1539, at which time, it appeared to be near double the value any other religious foundation in the kingdom; for its annual revenues amounted to 3977*l.* 6*s.* 4$\frac{3}{4}$*d.* The monaſtery thus diſſolved, Henry erected it into a college of ſecular canons, under the government of a dean, and appointed William Benſon, the laſt abbot, the firſt dean. But in the 37th year of his reign, an act was paſſed to authorize him, either by letters patent, or proclamations, to make it an honour, a title of diſtinction, which he was impowered by the ſame act to confer upon Kingſton-upon-Hull, St. Oſyth's in Eſſex, and Donnington in Berkſhire; and he afterwards converted it into a biſhopric, with a dean and twelve prebendaries, and appointed the whole county of Middleſex, except Fulham, which was ſtill to belong to the biſhopric of London, as its dioceſe; upon this occaſion, Weſtminſter became a city; it had many years before been the ſeat of the royal palace, the high court of parliament, and of our law tribunals; moſt of our ſovereigns had been crowned, and had their ſepulchres in the Abbey church, and the ancient palace being almoſt deſtroyed by fire, the laſt mentioned prince had here his palace of Whitehall, which he purchaſed of Cardinal Wolſey; he alſo built the palace of St. James, and incloſed a fine ſpot of ground, which he converted into a park, for the accommodation of both palaces; and this was no ſooner finiſhed, than he erected a ſtately gate near the banquetting-houſe, and added to it a magnificent gallery for the accommodation of the royal family, the nobility and gentry to ſit in, in order to ſee the juſtings and other military exerciſes in the tilt-yard; and ſoon after the ſame prince erected a tennis-court, cock-pit, and places for bowling. From that time the buildings began to extend every way, but the palace was burned down ſoon after. It never had but one biſhop, the ſee being tranſlated to Norwich, by Edward VI., in the year 1550; though by courteſy, it has ſtill retained the title of city.

The city of Weſtminſter is comprized in the two, now united pariſhes of Saint Margaret and Saint John; beſides which there are ſeven in the liberties, St. Martin's-in-the-fields, St. James's, St. Anne's, St. Clement Danes, St. Mary-le-Strand, St. George's, Hanover-ſquare, and St. Paul's, Covent-garden, with the precinct of the Savoy.

ST. MAR-

ST. MARTIN'S-LE-GRAND. A portion of the liberties of Weſtminſter, ſituated indeed within the limits of the city of London, is the precinct of Saint Martin's-le-grand. On this ſite was anciently a college, conſiſting of a dean and prieſts, or ſecular canons. It owed its origin to the piety of two brothers, Ingebricus and Edvardus, or Gerardus, our hiſtorians are undecided which, in the year 1056. Twelve years afterwards William of Normandy confirmed the foundation, by a charter, dated in the ſecond year of his reign. This exempted the dean and canons from almoſt all eccleſiaſtical and temporal juriſdiction, and gave them the privilege of a ſanctuary. All theſe immunities were confirmed and increaſed by ſeveral ſucceſſors of the conqueror. Henry VII. conveyed to the abbot of the Abbey church of Weſtminſter, the advowſon of the deanery of Saint Martin's-le-grand, its canonries, prebends, churches, chapels, and all profits (except the prebend of Newlonde, founded by Herbert). His ſucceſſor, in the thirty-ſecond year of his reign, granted it to the new ſee of Weſtminſter, and two years afterwards to the dean and chapter. When Edward VI. diſſolved the biſhopric, he conveyed St. Martin's with the juriſdiction of the ſite and precinct to the biſhop of London; but an act of parliament reſtored it to the dean and chapter, as the abbot and convent of Weſtminſter had enjoyed it, their ſucceſſors are ſtill in poſſeſſion of the ſite; but the church was taken down ſoon after 1548, and the place covered with buildings, long ſince periſhed, and ſucceeded by others, ſome few of which are reſpectable, but the generality of the meaneſt deſcription. The dean and chapter hold a court, and have a priſon, a ſteward, and attornies, for this precinct.

GOVERNMENT OF WESTMINSTER. Until the reformation, Weſtminſter was under the arbitrary government of the abbot and monks; as it was afterwards under that of the biſhop, and the dean and chapter; till ſettled by act of parliament, 27 Elizabeth, 1585, whereby the civil government is lodged in the hands of the laity; though the dean is impowered to nominate the chief officers. Weſtminſter, with its liberties, being by the ſaid authority divided into twelve wards, the dean or the high ſteward, or his deputy, are impowered yearly, on Eaſter-Thurſday, to elect twelve ſufficient merchants or tradeſmen to be nominated burgeſſes, with a like number of perſons for their deputies, or aſſiſtants, to preſide over the reſpective wards for one year, and ſo from year to year during life, good behaviour or reſidence in the city or liberties. They who refuſe to ſerve as burgeſſes forfeit ten, deputies five pounds each. And the dean and his ſucceſſors, the high ſteward, or his deputy,

puty, the two chief and other ten burgeſſes, or any three, or four of them, (whereof the ſaid dean, high ſteward or his deputy, or one of the chief burgeſſes, to be at all times one) are impowered to hear, examine, determine and puniſh according to the laws of the kingdom, or laudable and lawful cuſtom of the city of London, all matters of incontinencies, common ſcolds, inmates and common nuiſances; and to commit all perſons to priſon that ſhall be guilty of a breach of the peace, of which they are to give notice to a juſtice or juſtices of the peace for the county of Middleſex, within the ſpace of twenty-four hours. The liberties or ſuburbs of Weſtminſter, being greatly increaſed both in number of houſes and inhabitants, it was judged neceſſary to increaſe both the number of burgeſſes and aſſiſtants from twelve to ſixteen each; which burgeſſes, with their aſſiſtants, are by the ſaid act of parliament impowered to act in all reſpects as the aldermen's deputies of the city of London.

High Steward. The high ſteward of Weſtminſter attended by the burgeſſes, acts as ſheriff, by preſiding at the Court Leet, and as chairman at the Quarter Seſſions. But this officer ſeldom officiating, leaves the management of affairs to his deputy, who, being a perſon well verſed in the laws of the kingdom, is appointed by him, and confirmed by the dean, and generally holds his office during life, or the government of his patron.

High Bailiff. The next officer in dignity is the high bailiff, who is likewiſe choſen by the dean for life. This officer in ſome meaſure alſo repreſents a ſheriff; for he ſummon juries, manages elections for members of parliament, has the ſeveral bailiffs of Weſtminſter ſubordinate to him; and all fines and forfeitures.

Other Officers. The remaining officers are the chief burgeſſes, burgeſſes and their aſſiſtants; the town-clerk, afferer and crier.

Arms. The arms of Weſtminſter, granted 1ſt of October, 1601, are; in a ſhield *azure* a portcullis, *or*, on a chief of the ſecond, the arms of Edward the Confeſſor, between the united roſes of Lancaſter and York.

Southwark. This borough, which forms another great diviſion of the metropolis, is already deſcribed in Vol. I. p. 101.

The Thames. In conſidering the local particulars which diſtinguiſh the Britiſh metropolis, it is of the higheſt importance to notice this noble river; the glory and pride of the empire, the wonder and envy of foreigners.

The Thames has its career nearly weſt for about ſeventy-two miles,

miles between the counties of Kent and Eſſex, and Surry and Middleſex. The firſt twenty miles is by an exceeding wide eſtuary; the next twenty-one miles is ſtill an eſtuary of conſiderable width; the remaining thirty-one miles is crooked, and gradually diminiſhing: the tide flows very powerfully through its whole length. At Eaſt Merſey it connects with the Colne river; at Weſt Merſey with Blackwater river; at Foulneſs eaſt point with Crouch river; at Whitſtable and Sheerneſs with the Medway river; at Graveſend with the Thames and Medway canal; oppoſite to Purfleet with the Darent river, or Dartfort-creek; at Bow-creek with the Lea river; at Blackwall and at Limehouſe-hole with the Iſle of Dogs canal (a new ſide-cut for ſhortening the navigation of this river); at Greenland-dock, and at Wilkinſon's gun wharf, Rotherhithe, with the Grand Surry canal; and at Limehouſe with the Limehouſe canal. Large ſhips of war can come up to Deptford, and merchants' ſhips of 7 to 800 tons burthen frequently lie at the quays cloſe to London bridge. The port of London, or part wherein the ſhips lie, generally called the pool, extends almoſt four miles, nearly to Deptford, in which ſpace more than 1000 veſſels have been ſeen moored at one time. The rapidly increaſing trade of this grand emporium of commerce, the regulations which have of late been made, for mooring the ſhips at more convenient diſtances, for a paſſage up and down the river, and the contiguity of the Weſt India and Eaſt India docks to Blackwall, are expected ere long, to extend the tiers of ſhips as far as that place. It was ſtated in 1800, that the trade of the port of London had increaſed in the laſt or eighteenth century, by 6547 veſſels and 1,327,763 tons annually; and that (including repeated voyages), 13,144 ſhips and veſſels were then employed in this trade, to foreign countries, the colonies, and coaſtwiſe, beſides 2288 lighters, barges, and punts, employed in the middle part of the Thames, and on the Lea river; and 3336 of the like kinds of veſſels uſed below bridge, in the lading and diſcharging of veſſels, together with 83 boats, ſloops, cutters, and boys, 3000 watermans' wherries, 155 bum-boats, and 194 peter-boats; the total number (excluſive of ſhips of war, tranſports, and navy and victualling, and ordnance boys), being 22,500 veſſels of various ſizes and dimenſions, either trading to, or ſtationed within the pool or port of London: the total value of the goods imported and exported annually by them exceeding 67,000,000*l.*

The corporation of the city of London, as conſervators of the Thames, have executed conſiderable works for the improvement of the river: ſeveral mooring chains in the pool have been purchaſed of lord Gwydir and others, and a harbour-

maſter,

master, approved by the Trinity-house, is appointed to regulate the mooring and conduct of vessels, agreeable to the 19, 29, and 39 of George III.; one of the largest canals ever attempted has been cut, near 1¼ mile in length, 142 feet wide at top, and 24 feet deep! across the Isle of Dogs, for shortening the passage of vessels to and from the pool, and to avoid the long circuit by Greenwich and Deptford. Several large sums of public money have been granted out of the consolidated fund; for the repayment of which, vessels passing through this canal, of 200 tons or upwards, are to pay 2*d.* per ton; those from 200 to 100 tons, 1½*d.* per ton; from 100 to 50 tons, 1*d.* per ton; 50 to 20 tons, 5*s.* each; and boats and craft 1*s.* each. Two or more piers are intended to be built at the entrance, for facilitating the entrance of vessels to this canal. Between this canal and the entrance of the East India docks, there is a large mass of silicious pudding-stone, consisting of chert pebbles imbedded in a very hard cement, which lies in the bed of the river, and has proved fatal to several ships, on which account the committee, in September 1802, and on several other occasions, advertised for persons who would undertake to lower this rock 18 feet, its length being about 40, and breadth 30 feet.

The Thames river, below London, is embanked through a great part of its course; the time when these banks were first erected is uncertain, but they appear to be of great antiquity; and during several hours of each tide the adjoining meadows are ten feet or more below the level of the water. At Dagenham, about seven miles below Blackwall, a large breach in one of these banks happened, which Capt. John Perry succeeded in stopping, after several others had failed in their attempts.

Thus far description relates entirely to that portion of the Thames which is devoted to commerce. Of the residue the following animated account is extracted from the work of Mr. Pennant on the Metropolis. "I should speak, he says, with the prejudices of a true Englishman, was I to dignify the Thames with the title of the chief of rivers. I must qualify my patriotism with its just claim to that of first of island rivers. But in respect to our rival kingdom, it must yield the palm to the Garonne; only we must not make comparison of its length of course. The contracted space of our island must limit that species of grandeur, but there are none, in any part of Europe, which can boast of more utility in bringing farther from the ocean the largest commercial ships; nor are there any which can bring the riches of the universe to their very capital. The ships of the Seine discharge themselves at Havre; those of the Loire reach no farther than Port Lannai, far below its emporium, Nantes;

Nantes; and the Garonne conveys no farther than Pouillac the full loaden ſhips; they are obliged to be eaſed of part of their cargoes before they can reach the opulent Bourdeaux[a].

The Thames riſes beneath Sufferton-hill, juſt within the borders of Glouceſterſhire, a little to the ſouth-weſt of Cirenceſter, which it inſtantly quits, and enters for a ſhort ſpace into the county of Wilts, bends a little into it, and re-enters its parent province near Lechlade, where (by means of locks) it firſt becomes navigable, and, as it is ſaid, for barges of ſeventy tons. It here leaves Glouceſterſhire, and becomes the whole ſouthern boundary of Oxfordſhire, or the northern of Berkſhire, and from thence is the ſouthern limit of Buckinghamſhire. Boulter's lock, above Maidenhead, in the ſame county, is the laſt lock; from thence to the ſea it requires no farther art to aid its navigation. At a ſmall diſtance from Windſor-bridge it divides Berkſhire from Buckinghamſhire; and at a ſmall diſtance from Staines-bridge it divides Middleſex from Surrey. Juſt above Kingſton it feels the laſt feeble efforts of a tide; from thence is a moſt important increaſe: juſt below London bridge eighteen feet; and at Deptford twenty. This noble river continues freſh as low as Woolwich, and even there is brackiſh only at ſpring tides. Thus at our capital it is perfectly pure, ſalubrious, and ſubſervient to vaſt articles of commerce, with which that ſtupendous city abounds. The whole courſe of the Thames, to its mouth, is conſiderably above two hundred miles; contracting its length very conſiderably, in compariſon of the uſual eſtimation, and limiting its mouth to the ſpot between the weſt-end of the iſle of Grain, in Kent, and the eaſtern part of that of Canvey, in Eſſex. From thoſe places to the Naze in the latter county, and the North Fore-

[a] The following comparative ſtatement of the length of the Thames in relation to that of other rivers, is extracted from Major Rennel's Memoir on a Map of Hindoſtan.

"The proportional lengths of courſe of ſome of the moſt noted rivers in the world are ſhewn nearly by the following numbers:

European Rivers.		Jenniſea	10
		Oby	10½
Thames	1	Amour	11
Rhine	5½	Lena	11½
Danube	7	Hoanho (of China)	13½
Wolga	9½	Kian Kew (of ditto)	15½

Aſiatic Rivers.		African Rivers.	
Indus (probably)	6⅔	Nile	12½
Euphrates	8½		
Ganges	9½	American Rivers.	
Nou Kian, or Ava river	9½	Miſſiſippi	8
Burrampooter	9½	Amazons	12½

land

land in that of Kent (which have hitherto been conſidered as its entrance), it ceaſes to flow in a ſingle channel; it becomes a vaſt eſtuary filled with ſand-banks, many of which appear above water at the receſs of the tides.

The whole courſe of the river is through a country which furniſhes every idea of opulence, fertility, and rural elegance: meadows rich in hay, or covered with numerous herds; gentle riſings, and hanging woods; embelliſhed with palaces, magnificent ſeats or beautiful villas, a few the hereditary manſions of our ancient gentry, but the greater part property tranſferred by the effects of vice and diſſipation, to the owners of honeſt wealth acquired by commerce or induſtrious profeſſions, or the dear purchaſe of cankering rapine. Its courſe furniſhes few ſublime ſcenes, excepting the high chalky cliffs near Henley; all its banks are replete with native ſoftneſs, improved by art and the fulleſt cultivation. It does not flow in any part over a rocky channel; its bottom is either gravelly or clayey, according to the nature of the ſoil through which it meanders. This gives growth to the abundance of weeds with which it is in many parts filled; and theſe prove the ſafety of multitudes of fiſhes, and preſerve them from being extirpated by the unbridled ravages of the poachers. The Thames has, between its ſource and Woolwich, every ſpecies found in the Britiſh rivers, except the burbot, the loche, the cobitis tænia or ſpiny loche, of late years diſcovered in the river Trent, and the ſmall ſpecies of ſalmon, the ſamlet. The ſalmon and the ſhad are fiſhes of paſſage; the firſt appears in the river about the middle of February, is in great eſtimation, and ſells at a vaſt price; their capture is prohibited from the 24th of Auguſt to the 11th of November. The ſhad arrives the latter end of May or beginning of June, and is a very coarſe fiſh; it ſometimes grows to the weight of eight pounds, but the uſual ſize is from four to five. The leſſer lamprey, the *Petromyzon fluviatilis* of Linnæus, is a ſmall fiſh of great and national importance, and is taken in amazing quantities between Batterſea reach and Taplow mills (a ſpace of about fifty miles), and ſold to the Dutch for the cod and other fiſheries; 450,000 have been ſold in one ſeaſon for that purpoſe; the price has been 40*s.* the thouſand: this year the Dutch have given 3*l.* and the Engliſh from 5*l.* to 8*l.*; the former having prudently contracted for three years, at a certain price. Formerly the Thames has furniſhed from a million to twelve hundred thouſand annually. The fiſh of the Thames which come as low as London-bridge, and beyond it as far as the river is freſh, are a few roach and dace; bleak in great plenty, and eels extend far down the river; ſmall flounders are found as far as Fulham, brought up by the tides, and

continue

continue ſtationary. The barbel is never ſeen below London bridge. Several of the leſſer ſpecies of whales have been known to ſtray up the Thames; a kind of grampus with a high dorſal fin has been taken within the mouth of the river. A ſpecies allied to the delphinus, delphis, or dolphin, twenty-one feet long, was taken in 1783, above London bridge; and the common porpuſſes frequently run up the Thames in numbers, and afford an eager diverſion to the watermen.

Having thus generally deſcribed the Thames, it remains only to notice the bridges thrown over it for the accommodation of the inhabitants of the metropolis, and the prodigious docks which have been recently formed for the ſecurity and facility of commerce.

London Bridge. This ſtructure claims priority of notice from its antiquity, and from the connexion it eſtabliſhes between the city of London and its appendage the borough of Southwark. The year of its foundation is not ſettled. The firſt mention of it is in the laws of Etheldred, which fix the tolls of veſſels coming to Billingſgate, or *ad Pontem*. It could not be prior to the year 993, when Unlaff, the Dane, ſailed up the river as high as Staines, without interruption; nor yet after the year 1016, in which Ethelred died: and the great Canute, king of Denmark, when he beſieged London, was impeded in his operations by a bridge, which even at that time muſt have been ſtrongly fortified, to oblige him to have recourſe to the following vaſt expedient: he cauſed a prodigious ditch to be cut on the ſouth ſide of the Thames at Rotherhithe, or Redriff, a little to the eaſt of Southwark, which he continued at a diſtance from the ſouth end of the bridge, in form of a ſemicircle, opening into the weſtern part of the river. Through this he drew his ſhips, and effectually compleated the blockade of the city; but the valour of the citizens obliged him to raiſe the ſiege. Evidences of this great work were found in the place called the Dock-head at Redriff, where it began. Faſcines of hazles and other bruſhwood, faſtened down with ſtakes, were diſcovered in digging that dock in 1694; and in other parts of its courſe have been met with, in ditching, large oaken planks and numbers of piles.

The bridge originated from the public ſpirit of the College of Prieſts of St. Marie Overie. Before, there had been a ferry, left by her parents to their only daughter Mary; who, out of the profits founded a nunnery, and endowed it with the profits of the boat. This houſe was afterwards converted into the College of Prieſts, who not only built the bridge, but kept it in repair: but it muſt be underſtood, that the firſt bridge was of timber, the materials at hand, and moſt probably rudely put

together. This account is given by Stow, from the report of Bartholomew Linſted, alias Fowle, laſt prior of St. Marie Overie; but was doubted, becauſe the work has been ſuppoſed to be too great and too diſintereſted for a college of prieſts, who were to give up the certain profits of the ferry for thoſe reſulting precarioufly from an expenſive undertaking. Even the exiſtence of a religious houſe before the conqueſt has been ſuſpected; but the Domeſday Book puts that out of doubt, by informing us, *Ipſe epiſcopus habet unum monaſterium in Sudwerche.* Numbers of uſeful as well as pious works, in early days, originated from the inſtigation of the churchmen, who often had the honour of being called the founders, when the work itſelf was performed by their devotees. Neither is it to be ſuppoſed that they could keep it in repair: the ſame zeal which impelled people to contribute to the building, operated in the veſtiture of land for its future ſupport; and this appears to have been done in ſeveral inſtances; yet the endowments were ſo ſmall, that a ſupplementary tax was often raiſed.

In 1136, the bridge was burned down. By the year 1163, it grew ſo ruinous as to occaſion its being rebuilt, under the care of one Peter, curate of St. Mary Colechurch, a celebrated architect of thoſe times. It was ſoon afterwards determined to build a bridge of ſtone, and about the year 1176, the ſame Peter was employed again. It proved a work of thirty-three years; the architect died four years before it was completed; and another clergyman, Iſenbert, maſter of the ſchools of Xainctes, was recommended to the citizens by king John, for the honour of finiſhing it; but they rejected their prince's choice, and committed the work to three merchants of London, who completed it in 1209. Peter was buried in a beautiful chapel, probably of his own conſtruction, dedicated to St. Thomas, which ſtood on the eaſt ſide, in the ninth pier from the north end, and had an entrance from the river as well as the ſtreet, by a winding ſtair-caſe. It was beautifully paved with black and white marble, and in the middle was a tomb, ſuppoſed to contain the remains of Peter the architect.

This great work was founded on enormous piles, driven as cloſely as poſſible together; on their tops were laid long planks ten inches thick, ſtrongly bolted; and on them was placed the baſe of the pier, the lowermoſt ſtones of which were bedded in pitch, to prevent the water from damaging the work: round all were the piles which are called the ſterlings, deſigned for the preſervation of the foundation piles. Theſe contracted the ſpace between the piers ſo greatly, as to occaſion, at the retreat of every tide, a fall of five feet, or a number of temporary cataracts, which, ſince the foundation of the bridge, have occa-

ſioned the loſs of many thouſand lives. The water at ſpring tides riſes to the height of about eighteen feet. The length of this vaſt work is 915 feet, the exact breadth of the river. The number of arches was nineteen, of unequal dimenſions, and greatly deformed by the ſterlings, and the houſes on each ſide, which overhung and leaned in a moſt terrific manner. In moſt places they hid the arches, and nothing appeared but the rude piers. The ſtreet on London bridge was narrow, darkſome, and dangerous to paſſengers from the multitude of carriages; frequent arches of ſtrong timber croſſed the ſtreet from the tops of the houſes, to keep them together, and from falling into the river. Nothing but uſe could preſerve the reſt of the inmates, who ſoon grew deaf to the noiſe of the falling waters, the clamours of watermen, and the frequent ſhrieks of drowning wretches. Moſt of the houſes were tenanted by pin or needle-makers, and economical ladies were wont to drive from the St. James's end of the town to make cheap purchaſes. Fuller tells us, that Spaniſh needles were made here firſt in Cheapſide by a negro, who died without communicating the art. Elias Crowſe, a German, in the reign of Elizabeth, was more liberal, and firſt taught the method to the Engliſh. Fuller's definition of a needle is excellent, *quaſi* NE IDLE.

In the bridge were three openings on each ſide, with balluſtrades, to give paſſengers a ſight of the water and ſhipping. In one part had been a draw-bridge, uſeful either by way of defence or for the admiſſion of ſhips into the upper part of the river. This was protected by a ſtrong tower. It ſerved to repulſe Fauconbridge, the baſtard, in his general aſſault on the city, in 1471, with a ſet of banditti, under pretence of reſcuing the unfortunate Henry, then confined in the Tower. Sixty houſes were burnt on the bridge on the occaſion. It alſo ſerved to check, and in the end annihilate, the ill conducted inſurrection of Sir Thomas Wyatt, in the reign of queen Mary. The top of this tower, in the ſad and turbulent days of this kingdom, uſed to be the ſhambles of human fleſh, and covered with heads or quarters of unfortunate partizans. Even ſo late as the year 1598, Hentzner, the German traveller, with German accuracy, counted on it about thirty heads. The old map of the city in 1597, repreſents them in a moſt horrible cluſter.

At the north end of the bridge, one Peter Corbes, a Dutchman, in the year 1582, invented and placed an engine to force the water of the Thames into leaden pipes, to ſupply many of the adjacent parts of the city. It has ſince that time been ſo greatly improved, by the ſkill of the Engliſh mechanics, as to become

become a moſt curious as well as uſeful piece of machinery, and to be extremely worthy the attention of perſons profeſſing that branch of ſcience. On this bridge an unparalleled calamity happened, within four years after it was finiſhed. A fire began on it at the Southwark end; multitudes of people ruſhed out of London to extinguiſh it; while they were engaged in this charitable deſign, the fire ſeized on the oppoſite end, and hemmed in the crowd. Above 3000 perſons periſhed in the flames, or were drowned by overloading the veſſels which were hardy enough to attempt their relief.

WESTMINSTER BRIDGE. The firſt petition for a new bridge was preſented to the Houſe of Commons, December 15, 1721, by the inhabitants and parts adjacent; and another from the counties of Kent, Suſſex, Surrey, and Southampton; and a bill was paſſed in purſuance of the tenor of the requeſt, but not without conſiderable oppoſition. Mr. Charles Labelye, a native of Switzerland, but a naturalized ſubject of England, was the architect employed for this great undertaking. He was highly eſteemed for his probity and honour, and grateful for the attentions he ever received in England, felt proud in the name of an adopted Briton; but finding our climate prejudicial to his health, he was under the neceſſity of retiring to the more congenial air of France, in the capital of which country he reſided for ſeveral years, and died there in 1762, at an advanced age. The French government were fully acquainted with his ſkill; but they never could prevail on him to undertake any of the works at Cherbourg, or elſewhere, which he conceived would be injurious to England. The ballaſt-men of the Trinity-houſe commenced the operations, by digging five feet below the bed of the river, in order to obtain a certain foundation. When this was accompliſhed, a huge boat or well, formed of oak, caulked to the excluſion of every drop of the ſurrounding element, was moored directly over the foundation of the intended firſt pier, where it was fixed immoveably, by piles driven cloſe to the ſides. As this machine floated exactly in the manner of a lighter or boat, any given weight would operate on it as the loading in a ſhip; which being placed gradually, and with the ſtricteſt attention to the equilibrium of every part, carries her down into the water equally till ſhe is filled. It was thus with the weſtern middle pier, the firſt ſtone of which was laid by the earl of Pembroke, January 29, 1738-9, in the machine, and on its bottom. The workmen then proceeded, gradually ſinking with each day's labour, till the weight of ſtone had rivetted the pier to the native earth over which the Thames glides; when the boat or machine was taken to pieces, and the pier made its appearance,

completed. The wooden bottom neceſſarily remains between the ſtones and the earth; and by this ſimple contrivance the whole foundation was effected, but at various depths. Every precaution had been adopted to render the conſtruction everlaſting, by building the piers perfectly ſolid, and uniting the vaſt blocks of Portland ſtone by ſtrong bars of iron, let into each from its neighbour, and cemented by liquid lead, which will prevent a poſſibility of corroſion. On the 20th of April, 1739, the pier was completed, probably to high-water-mark; and about the ſame time the houſes in New Palace-yard and King-ſtreet, which were to be removed for the intended way to the bridge, were valued by twelve men of the city and liberties. In May 1742, the Houſe of Commons granted the ſum of 20,000*l.* for this noble bridge; and on the 13th of July following a perpetuity was paſſed to Sir Joſeph Ayloffe and Thomas Lidiard, their heirs and ſucceſſors for ever, to hold in free and common ſocage the crown lands from Weſtminſter-bridge to Charing-croſs, in truſt for the commiſſioners of the new bridge. In 1743, 15,000*l.* were granted for the works by parliament. In the following year a machine invented by a perſon named King, for cutting the piles off cloſe to the bottom, was tried, and one ſevered in four minutes. One hundred and thirty-one houſes are ſaid to have been taken down in 1748, in order to make the approach to the bridge what it now is; by which year one of the piers was diſcovered to reſt on an inſecure foundation. The arch from it was immediately removed, and articles weighing 12,000 tons were placed on it, which cauſed a ſinking of five inches. This circumſtance led to an examination of the texture of the ſoil beneath it, which was found to be very far from ſolid for ſeveral feet in depth. In this unpleaſant dilemma the architect had the pier taken up below low-water-mark, and turned an arch over it from two abutments. The whole was at length completed, and the commiſſioners gave public notice of the day when they intended to open it for uſe. That day was, by ſome ſtrange overſight, fixed for Sunday, November 18th, 1750. Senſible of their error, they endeavoured to revoke the notice; but as that was found to be impracticable, they adopted the curious expedient of performing the ceremony at midnight. The flambeaux illumined the air, which reſounded with drums, trumpets, and cannon, and with the ſhouts of the populace, who ruſhed in mighty crowds from each ſhore, during all the ſucceeding and many enſuing days. The whole expence of this magnificent national ſtructure was raiſed by the voluntary tax of lotteries, and amounted to 389,500*l.* The length is ſaid to be 223 feet, and the breadth 44, allowing ſeven feet to

each

each foot-way, and thirty for the carriage-way. There are fourteen piers and fifteen arches, all of which are femicircles. The centre is 76 feet in width, each adjoining, 72; the decreaſe of the others is in a gradation of four feet, making the two laſt large ones fifty-two feet; thoſe in the abutments are about twenty feet in width. The middle piers are ſeventeen feet broad, and there is a decreaſe of one foot in each till the laſt is twelve feet at the ſpring of the arch.

The arch turned over the defective pier was recommended by Dr. Stukeley, and a plan of it laid before the Royal Society. He calls it an interlaced arch. An examination of it takes place every ſeventh year. An intelligent gentleman, who went into the cavity, thus deſcribes it: "The flat ſpace on which you ſtand is the centre of the pier. On each hand are the riſing crowns of the two arches, reſting on this pier, which is the fifth from the Weſtminſter ſhore. And about eighteen feet above where you ſtand is the crown, or ſoffit of the great arch, riſing from the centre of the adjoining two, and carrying this bridge from the fourth to the ſixth pier; ſo that by this arch of Dr. Stukeley's the fifth may be removed, and not injure the bridge in any degree. The hexagonal angles of the two ends of this chamber, which is fifteen yards wide, are alſo hollow, and indeed it is in the ſouth angle or receſs in which the ladder is fixed to deſcend, near the bottom of which is a ſmall opening, to permit freſh air to paſs through the chamber to ventilate its ponderous walls and roof."

BLACKFRIAR'S BRIDGE. When there were draw-bridges upon London bridge, ſhips of a certain ſize uſed to paſs and diſcharge their cargoes in the mouth of the Fleet. The end of Blackfriar's bridge now fills the filthy mouth of Fleet-ditch. This elegant ſtructure was built after the deſign of Mr. Robert Mylne. It conſiſts of nine arches, the centre of which is a hundred feet wide. The whole length 995 feet, the breadth of the carriage way twenty-eight feet; of the two foot-ways ſeven each. Over each pier is a receſs, an apology for the beautiful pairs of *Ionic* pillars which ſupport them. The effect of this ſingular application of columns is beautiful from the river. The equinoctial tides riſe here to the height of eighteen or twenty feet. The firſt ſtone of this bridge was laid October 30th, 1760, and it was completed about the latter end of the year 1768, at the expence of 152,840*l.* 3*s.* 10*d.* The *Fleet*, a ſmall river whoſe waters ſwelled by Turnmill and Oldbourne brooks, formerly flowed in a valley, which may be very readily traced from the Thames to Battle-bridge, near the Small-pox hoſpital. But now we have loſt every thing but the names of Oldbourne and Turnmill; and the Fleet exiſts

only under a ſewer. After repeated complaints of the increaſing nuiſance ariſing from this ſtream, and which was deſtructive not only of comfort, but of health, the Corporation of London obtained an act of parliament (which veſted the grounds in their hands) to fill it up. This was done about the year 1736. The expence of the undertaking, making the vaſt arch that now carries off the water, and erecting the market, amounted to 10,256*l.* 17*s.*

Docks. Until within theſe few years all the loading and unloading of ſhipping was carried on in the open river, which, from the vaſt increaſe of the trade of this port was become inſufficient in extent for theſe purpoſes. When large fleets arrived, much damage was frequently ſuſtained by the ſhipping, and the ſmall number and confined ſituation of the quays rendered long delays unavoidable. Beſides this the whole of the cargoes while on board or unloading were compleatly at the mercy of men whoſe chief income conſiſted in pilferage, and who carried this ſyſtem to an intolerable pitch. The only watch that government had over thoſe goods which paid duties was by means of an officer, whoſe income probably from government did not exceeed 50*l.* per annum, and whom a ſmall temptation could eaſily bring over to wink at, or participate in the theft and ſmuggling which were daily carried on. Even after the goods (as ſugars) were warehouſed, it was ſeldom the hogſheads did not come out from a quarter to half a hundred weight lighter than they went in, which the warehouſe-keepers aſcribed to the ſampling and draining of the caſks. As but few of the heavy ſhips could come to the quay to unload, the goods were put into lighters, where they were at the mercy of the lightermen and their ſervants; and this was another cauſe, and afforded ample opportunity for ſmuggling. By all theſe means the proprietors of the goods, who, in the caſe of Weſt-India produce, were abroad and obliged to leave the care of their crops to their agents here, were robbed of their property, government was defrauded of revenue, and thus the load of taxes laid heavier upon the quantity which remained to tax, and from this cauſe the goods went dearer into market.

After frequent meetings of the merchants upon the above ſubject, application was made to parliament reſpecting it, and a committee appointed by the Houſe to examine into the beſt means of redreſſing the grievances complained of. This committee having received ample evidence of the neceſſity of increaſed accommodation to the port, proceeded to examine the different plans laid before them, and reported to the Houſe upon

upon their opinion of the merits of each. Mr. Pitt, then prime miniſter, paid particular attention to the ſubject, went down and inſpected the grounds which were propoſed as the ſituations for the Docks, that he might make himſelf maſter of the ſubject; and make up his opinions by ocular demonſtration of the aſſertions which were made by the favourers of the different plans.

The principal Weſt-India merchants at laſt reſolved to bring in a bill for making Docks in the Iſle of Dogs, for the accommodation of the Weſt-India trade alone, while a bill was by another body of merchants brought in for making Docks in Wapping, for the relief of the general trade of the port.

The Weſt-India Dock bill, which includes the canal in the Iſle of Dogs, was paſſed into an act in the ſeſſion of 1799, and the Wapping or London Dock bill in 1800.

West-India Docks. The fund for executing theſe works was raiſed by the ſubſcription of private individuals. The proprietors are repaid an intereſt not to exceed ten per cent. by a rate or charge upon all the ſhipping and merchandize entering the dock, and the trade of the company has hitherto enabled them to pay that dividend. By the act, all Weſt-India produce coming to the port of London muſt be unloaded in theſe docks. The preſent capital of the company is 1,100,000*l.* The plan comprehends two docks, one for unloading the ſhips arrived from the Weſt-Indies, containing thirty acres, and capable of accommodating 300 Weſt-Indiamen, and the other for loading outward-bound ſhips, containing twenty-four acres, and capable of containing upwards of 200 Weſt-Indiamen. The former was begun February 3d, 1800, and opened the 27th of Auguſt, 1802, being only two years and a half, and it is ſurrounded by extenſive ranges of warehouſes, capable of accommodating the whole of the Weſt-India trade, in which warehouſes the goods are lodged until the duty is paid. The dock of twenty-four acres was completed and opened in 1805.

The depth of water in the dock is twenty-three feet, and its bottom five feet under low water in the river. The buſineſs of the company is conducted by twenty-one directors, of whom thirteen are choſen from among the proprietors, and the remaining eight are members of and appointed by the corporation of the city of London.

Theſe docks are formed acroſs the narroweſt part of the Iſle of Dogs, which is formed by a circuitous courſe the river takes, leaving this almoſt a peninſula, ſo that the docks communicate with the river at both extremities of the iſland. The ſoil was beſides very favourable for the purpoſe of making docks, for the whole of this ground has been gained by embanking from

the river, and the marſh, before it was begun to be cut, was from ſix to ſeven feet under the level of high water, ſo that the ground which was cut out from the docks was all wanted for making up the quays.

The Canal to the ſouthward of the Weſt-India docks is intended to enable ſhips to avoid the circuitous navigation of the Iſle of Dogs, by which a diſtance of ſeveral miles will be ſaved. The expence of making it is paid from the conſolidated fund of the nation, and will be repaid by a ſmall tax upon all ſhipping coming to the port: 180,000*l.* have already been granted for making it. The management of it is committed to a committee of the corporation of the city of London.

THE LONDON DOCKS. The fund by which they were executed was raiſed in the ſame way as that of the Weſt-India docks, and its proprietors will be repaid in the ſame manner. The firſt ſtone of the works was laid June 26th, 1802, and the dock of twenty acres was opened January 31, 1805. Another large dock of fourteen acres is propoſed to be made in Shadwell to communicate with that already finiſhed. Extenſive warehouſes are completed upon the north quay of the dock, and alſo a large tobacco warehouſe. The immenſe number of houſes which have been taken down for the purpoſe of making this dock have much increaſed the expence of the execution. The capital of the company at preſent is 2,200,000*l.* The great trade of the company comes in the general traffic of the port; the tobacco warehouſe alone covers four acres of ground, and government pay the company 15,600*l.* annually as rent for it. The buſineſs is conducted by twenty-four directors choſen from among the proprietors, together with the lord-mayor of the city of London for the time being.

EAST-INDIA DOCKS. In the year 1803, the principal proprietors of Eaſt-India ſhipping ſeeing the ſalutary effects derived from the Weſt-India docks, came to a reſolution of following the example by having docks made for the accommodation of Eaſt-India ſhipping, and for the ſecurity of the goods brought home by them, which the ſtate of the river and the abuſes practiſed had rendered highly neceſſary. Having carried a bill through the Houſe for theſe purpoſes, and opened a ſubſcription to the amount of 300,000*l.*; and the directors who were appointed made purchaſe of the Brunſwick dock at Blackwall, with a view of converting it into a dock for loading the outward-bound ſhipping. The dock which received its name in honour of the preſent race of monarchs, was begun and executed by Mr. Perry, from his private fortune, and affords an ample proof of his enterprizing public ſpirit. In addition to this the Eaſt-India Dock company have executed a large dock of eighteen

acres,

acres, for the purpoſe of unloading the homeward-bound ſhips with a commodious baſon and embraſures to it. This great dock was begun in the end of 1803, and the whole of the works were completed in 1806. All Eaſt-India produce coming to this port muſt be unloaded in theſe docks. The buſineſs is conducted by thirteen directors of the Eaſt-India company.

COMMERCIAL ROAD. For the purpoſe of opening an eaſy communication between the city of London and the different docks, a very commodious road called the Commercial Road, has been made from a fund raiſed in the ſame way as thoſe of the different docks. The road is ſeventy feet wide, and in the centre of it is a ſtrong pavement of twenty feet in width. The management is committed to thirteen truſtees, who are empowered to raiſe a ſum of 120,000*l.* for making and paving it. The diſtance from the Royal Exchange in London to the Weſt-India dock gate is three miles, and to the Eaſt-India dock gate three miles and a half.

In the digging of the Eaſt and Weſt-India docks, a very thick ſtratum of decayed vegetables or peat was found ſpread over the ſoil, about ſix feet under the ſurface, in which nuts, leaves, branches of trees, &c. of different ſpecies were found almoſt in an entire ſtate. In the Eaſt-India docks a very fine elephant's tooth was picked up near the bottom of the dock; and in the Weſt-India docks a very large deer's horn nearly at the ſame depth.

To the ſurprize of thinking men, all theſe great undertakings were begun and carried on during a long and expenſive war; they diſplay to great advantage the ſpirit and enterprize of the merchants of this nation.

PLACES OF WORSHIP. The following enumeration of places of worſhip in the metropolis is made by Mr. Colquhoun, in his Treatiſe on the Police.

OF THE ESTABLISHED RELIGION	1	Cathedral, dedicated to St. Paul.
	1	Abbey church of St. Peter, Weſtminſter.
	120	Pariſh churches.
	120	Chapels and chapels of eaſe.
	242	
MEETING-HOUSES FOR DISSENTERS	150	Conſiſting of chapels for Methodiſts, Nonconformiſts, Preſbyterians, Independents, Anabaptiſts, Quakers, and Engliſh Roman Catholics.

CHAPELS

Chapels and Meeting-Houses for Foreigners - - - - - -	30	Conſiſting of chapels for French, German, Dutch, Swediſh, Daniſh, and Helvetic Proteſtants, for Foreign Roman Catholics, and thoſe of the Ruſſian or Greek church.
Synagogues - - - - -	6	For the Jewiſh religion.
Total about	428	Places of public worſhip.

Public Edifices. As it is not intended in this place to return to the ſubject of religion, already treated at much length in a preceding volume, the Cathedral and Abbey will be deſcribed as part of a number of public buildings, which are to be noticed in the metropolis.

St. Paul's. The deſcription of this beautiful and celebrated cathedral is taken chiefly from Pennant, with ſome additions from the minute and laborious work of Mr. Malcolm, to which the reader is referred for much curious information. "The beſt authority," Mr. Pennant ſays, "for the origin of this church, is its great reſtorer, Sir Chriſtopher Wren. His opinion, that there had been a church upon this ſpot, built by the Chriſtians in the time of the Romans, was confirmed: when he ſearched for the foundations for his own deſign, he met with thoſe of the original *Preſbyterium*, or ſemicircular chancel of the old church. They conſiſted only of Kentiſh rubble-ſtone, artfully worked and conſolidated with exceeding hard mortar, in the Roman manner, much excelling the ſuper-ſtructure. He explodes the notion of there having been here a temple of Diana, and the diſcovery of the horns of animals uſed in the ſacrifices to that goddeſs, on which the opinion had been founded, no ſuch having been diſcovered in all his ſearches. In digging the foundation for the rebuilding St. Paul's was found a vaſt cemetery: firſt lay the Saxons in graves lined with chalk ſtones, or in coffins of hollowed ſtones; beneath them had been the bodies of the Britons placed in rows. Abundance of ivory and boxen pins, about ſix inches long, marked their place. Theſe were ſuppoſed to have faſtened the ſhrouds in which the bodies were wrapped. Theſe periſhing, left the pins entire. In the ſame row, but deeper, were Roman urns intermixed, lamps, lacrymatories, fragments of ſacrificial veſſels were alſo diſcovered in digging towards the north-eaſt corner; and in 1675, not far from the eaſt corner, at a conſiderable depth, beneath ſome flinty pavement, were found numbers of veſſels of earthen ware, and of glaſs, of moſt exquiſite colours and beauty, ſome inſcribed

inſcribed with the names of deities, heroes, or men of rank. Others ornamented with variety of figures in bas-relief, of animals and of roſe trees. *Teſſerulæ* of jaſper, porphyry, or marble, ſuch as form the pavement we ſo often ſee, were alſo diſcovered. Alſo glaſs beads and rings, large pins of ivory and bone, tuſks of boars and horns of deer ſawn through. Alſo coins of different emperors, among them ſome of Conſtantine, which at once deſtroys the conjecture of Mr. Maitland, who ſuppoſes that this collection were flung together at the ſacking of London by our injured Boadicea.

"The firſt church is ſuppoſed to have been deſtroyed in the Dioclesian perſecution, and to have been rebuilt in the reign of Conſtantine. This was again demoliſhed by the pagan Saxons, and reſtored in 603, by Sebert, a petty prince, ruling in theſe parts under Ethelbert, king of Kent, the firſt Chriſtian monarch of the Saxon race, who, at the inſtance of St. Auguſtine, appointed Melitus the firſt biſhop of London. Erkenwald, the ſon of king Offa, fourth in ſucceſſion from Melitus, ornamented his cathedral very highly, and improved the revenues with his own patrimony. He was moſt deſervedly canonized; for the very litter in which he was carried in his laſt illneſs, continued many centuries to cure fevers by the touch; and the very chips carried to the ſick reſtored them to health.

"When the city of London was deſtroyed by fire in 1086, this church was burnt; the biſhop Mauritius began to rebuild it, and laid the foundations, which remained till its ſecond deſtruction from the ſame cauſe, in the ſeventeenth century. Notwithſtanding Mauritius lived twenty years after he had begun this pious work, and biſhop Beaumes or Belmeis, enjoyed the ſee twenty more, yet ſuch was the grandeur of the deſign, that it remained unfiniſhed. The firſt had the ruins of the Palatine tower beſtowed on him, as materials for the building; and Henry I. beſtowed on the ſame prelate part of the ditch belonging to the Tower, which, with purchaſes made by himſelf, enabled him to incloſe the whole with a wall. The ſame monarch granted beſides, that every ſhip which brought ſtone for the church, ſhould be exempted from toll; he gave him alſo all the great fiſh taken in his precincts, except the tongues; and laſtly, he ſecured to him and his ſucceſſor the delicious tythes of all his veniſon in the county of Eſſex.

The ſteeple was finiſhed in 1221. The noble ſubterraneous church of *St. Faith*, *Eccleſia Sanctæ Fidis in cryptis*, was begun in 1257. It was ſupported by three rows of maſſy cloiſtered pillars, with ribs diverging from them to ſupport the ſolemn roof. This was the pariſh church. This undercroft, as buildings of this ſort were called, had in it ſeveral chaunteries

and monuments. It extended, ſays Dugdale, p. 119, under part of the choir, and the ſtructure eaſtward, and was ſupported by three rows of large and maſſy pillars: a print of it attends the deſcription given by our great antiquary. No part is now left, or of any other ancient crypt. A vaſt vault, ſupported by pillars, runs under the whole of St. Paul's, the work of its celebrated architect. Sir Chriſtopher is interred in an obſcure corner, beneath an ordinary flag, and on the wall above is the following inſcription written by his ſon:

Subtus Conditur,
Hujus eccleſiæ et urbis conditor,
CHRISTOPHERUS WREN,
Qui vixit annos ultra nonaginta,
Non ſibi ſed bono publico.
Lector, ſi monumentum requiris,
CIRCUMSPICE.

It is to be lamented, that this beautiful thought ſhould be flung away in the moſt darkſome nook of the whole fabrick. Henry Lacie, earl of Lincoln, who died in 1312, made what was called the new work, at the eaſt end of the church, in which was the chapel of our lady, and that of St. Dunſtan. In the laſt was the tomb of that great earl.

The chapter houſe was adjoining to the ſouth tranſept, was circular, and ſupported by four central pillars, and of more elegant Gothic than the reſt of the building. This projected into a moſt beautiful cloiſter two ſtories high. On the walls of a cloiſter on the north ſide of St. Paul's, called Pardon-church-haugh, was painted the Machabre, or dance of death, a common ſubject on the walls of cloiſters or religious places. This was a ſingle piece, a long train of all orders of men, from the pope to the loweſt of human beings; each figure has its partner, Death; the meagre ſpectre which leads the dance, ſhaking his remembring hour glaſs. Our old poet Lydgate, who flouriſhed in the year 1430, tranſlated a poem on the ſubject, from the French verſes which attended a painting of the ſame kind, about St. Innocent's cloiſter at Paris. The original verſes were made by Machaber, a German, in his own language. This ſhews the antiquity of the ſubject, and the origin of the hint from which Holbein executed his famous painting at Baſil.

This cloiſter, the dance, and innumerable fine monuments, (for here were crowded by far the moſt ſuperb) fell victims to the ſacrilege of the protector Somerſet, who demoliſhed the whole, and carried the materials to his palace then erecting in the Strand.

Farther to the weſt, adjoining to this ſouth ſide, was the

parish church of St. Gregory. Over it was one of the towers which ornamented the western front. It was called the Lollards Tower, and was the bishop's prison for the heterodox, in which was committed many a midnight murder.

The style of the antient cathedral was a most beautiful gothic; over the east end, was a most elegant circular window; alterations were made in the ends of the two transepts; so that their form is not delivered down to us in the antient plans; from the central tower rose a lofty and most graceful spire.

The dimensions of this noble temple, as taken in 1309, were these: the length six hundred and ninety feet; the breadth a hundred and twenty; the height of the roof of the west part, from the floor, one hundred and two; of the east part, a hundred and eighty eight; of the tower, two hundred and sixty; of the spire, which was made of wood covered with lead, two hundred and seventy-four. The whole space the church occupied was three acres and a half, one rood and a half, and six perches.

The holiness of this place did not prevent thieves and profligates of all denominations lurking within the precincts, and committing, under favour of the night, murders and every sort of crime. Edward I. gave the dean and canons permission to inclose the whole within a wall; and to have gates to be shut every night, to exclude all disorderly people. Within these walls, on the north-west side was the palace, the winter residence of the bishops of London. It was a building of vast extent, and frequently lodged our kings on different occasions.

Before this cathedral was the famous Paul's Cross, a pulpit formed of wood, mounted upon steps of stones, and covered with lead, in which the most eminent divines were appointed to preach every Sunday in the forenoon. To this place, the court, the mayor and aldermen, and principal citizens, used to resort. The greatest part of the congregation sat in the open air: the king and his train had covered galleries; and the better sort of people, as appears from the old prints, were also protected from the injury of the weather; but the far greater part stood exposed in the open air: for which reason the preacher went, in very bad weather, to a place called the *Shrowds*: a covered space on the side of the church, to protect the congregation in inclement seasons. Considerable contributions were raised among the nobility and citizens, to support such preachers as were (as was often the case) called to town from either of the universities. In particular, the lord mayor and aldermen ordered that every preacher who came from a distance, should be freely accommodated, during five days, with sweet and convenient lodgings, fire, candle, and all necessaries.

neceſſaries. And notice was given by the biſhop of London, to the preacher appointed by him, of the place he was to repair to. The origin of the cuſtom of preaching at croſſes, was probably accidental. The ſanctity of this ſpecies of pillar often cauſed a great reſort of people, to pay their devotion to the great object of their erection. A preacher, ſeeing a large concourſe, might be ſeized by a ſudden impulſe, aſcend the ſteps, and deliver out his pious advice from a ſtation ſo fit to inſpire attention, and conveniently formed for the purpoſe. The example might be followed till the practice became eſtabliſhed by cuſtom. It certainly at firſt was a common croſs, and coeval with the church. When it was firſt covered, and converted into a pulpit-croſs, we are not informed. It was uſed not only for the inſtruction of mankind, by the doctrine of the preacher, but for every purpoſe political or eccleſiaſtical; for giving force to oaths, for promulging of laws, or rather the royal pleaſure: for the emiſſion of papal bulls, for anathematizing ſinners, for benedictions, for expoſing of penitents under cenſure of the church, for recantations, for the private ends of the ambitious, and for the defaming of thoſe who had incurred the diſpleaſure of crowned heads. The reign of Elizabeth was wiſely uſhered in by the appointment of good and able men to preach from this croſs the doctrine of the reformation, and rejection of the papal power; in which politics were naturally intermixed. This began April the 9th 1559, with Dr. Bill the queen's almoner; he was followed by Grindal, Horn, Jewel, Sandys, and many others, who ſoon afterwards enjoyed the higheſt dignities in our church.

In 1561, the noble ſpire was totally burnt by lightning; as others ſay by the careleſsneſs of a workman, who made a confeſſion of it on his death bed. After this it never was reſtored. In fact it appears, that at this period the Cathedral was diſgraced by the groſſeſt irregularities, and diſfigured by ſhameful encroachments. The bell-ringers permitted perſons to aſcend into the tower for money, where they amuſed themſelves by hallooing, and throwing down ſmall ſtones upon thoſe who ſauntered beneath. Drunkards and idlers were indulged in laying and ſleeping upon the benches at the choir door. The choriſters ſpent their time in talking, and hunting after ſpur-money, which was an exaction from perſons who entered a cathedral booted and ſpurred. The gentlemen of the choir were peremptory in their demand, and threatened impriſonment in the choir for a night to all who refuſed them money. Porters, butchers, and water-bearers, were ſuffered (eſpecially in time of ſervice) to carry and recarry whatſoever they would. The windows were in general broken. Part of the vaults under the

the church were occupied by tradeſmen, ſome were converted into wine cellars. More than twenty houſes had a ſide formed by the church, whoſe windows were darkened, and walls ſmoked in conſequence. At the ſame time the foundations were injured by houſes of office cut through them; ovens and cloſets were dug in the walls for the accommodation of theſe habitations, and ſome parts of the church were converted into warehouſes and workſhops.

In conſequence of reſolutions taken in 1620, by James I., to repair the cathedral, the celebrated Inigo Jones was appointed to the work. But it was not attempted till 1633, when Laud laid the firſt ſtone, and Inigo the fourth. That great architect began, by giving at the weſt end a portico of the Corinthian order to this antient Gothic pile; and to the ends of the two tranſepts Gothic fronts. The great fire made way for the reſtoring of this magnificent pile by ſir Chriſtopher Wren, ſurveyor-general of his majeſty's works, an architect worthy of ſo great a deſign. Sir Chriſtopher made a model in wood of his firſt conception for re-building this church in the Roman ſtyle. He had in it an eye to the loſs of the pulpit-croſs, and had ſupplied its place by a magnificent auditory within, for the reception of a large congregation. This was approved by men of excellent judgment, but laid aſide under the notion it had not ſufficiently a temple-like form. A ſecond was made, ſelected out of various ſketches he had drawn; on this deſign ſir Chriſtopher ſet a high value: but this alſo was rejected. The third, which produced the preſent noble pile, was approved and executed. A ſingular accident happened at the beginning: while the great architect was ſetting out the dimenſions of the dome, he ordered a common labourer to bring him a flat ſtone, to be laid as a direction to the maſons; he brought a fragment of a grave-ſtone, on which was the word RESURGAM. This was not loſt on ſir Chriſtopher, he caught the idea of the Phœnix, which he placed on the ſouth portico, with that word cut beneath. The firſt ſtone was laid on June 21, 1675, and the building was completed by him in 1710; but the whole decorations were not finiſhed till 1723. It was a moſt ſingular circumſtance, that, notwithſtanding it was 35 years in building, it was begun and finiſhed by one architect, and under one prelate, Henry Compton, biſhop of London. It is alſo ſaid, that the ſame ſtone-maſon (whoſe name was Strong) ſaw the laying of the firſt and the laſt ſtone. The church of St. Peter's was 135 years in building, in the reigns of 19 popes, and went through the hands of 12 architects.

The compariſon between the churches of St. Peter at Rome, and St. Pauls in London, is almoſt inevitable, ſince it is acknowledged

knowledged that ſir Chriſtopher Wren derived his ideas from the Catholic cathedral, although he has not ſervilely followed, but ſometimes excelled, and ſometimes fallen ſhort of his model. It is not intended to diſcuſs the particular merits and defects of each building, but a general comparative view may be gained from the following table:

	St. Peter's.	St. Paul's.
Length of the church and porch -	729 feet	500 feet.
Length of the croſs - -	510	250
Breadth of the front, with the turrets	364	180
Breadth of the ſame, without the turrets - - -	318	110
Breadth of the church and three naves	255	130
Breadth of the ſame, and the wideſt chapels - - -	364	180
Length of the porch within - -	218	50
Breadth of the ſame within - -	40	20
Length of the plates at the upper ſteps	291	100
Breadth of the nave at the door -	67	40
Breadth of the nave at the third pillar and tribuna - - -	73	40
Breadth of the ſide iſles - -	29	17
Diſtance between the pillars of the nave - - -	44	25
Breadth of the ſame double pillars at St. Peter's - - -	29	
Single pillars at St. Paul's - -		10
Two right ſides of the great pilaſters of the cupola - - -	65	35
Diſtance between the ſame pilaſters	72	40
Outward diameter of the cupola -	189	145
Inward diameter - - -	138	108
From the door within to the cupola	313	190
From the cupola to the end of the tribuna - - -	167	170
Breadth of each of the turrets -	77	35
The outward diameter of the lantern	36	18
Height.		
From the ground without to the top of the croſs - - -	437	340
The turrets - - -	289	222
To the top of the higheſt front ſtatues	175	135
The firſt pillars of the Corinthian order - - -	74	33
Breadth of the ſame - -	9	4
Their baſes and pedeſtals - -	19	13

Their

	St. Peter's.	St. Paul's
Their capitals	10 feet.	5 feet.
The architrave, frieze, and cornice	19	10
The Compoſite pillars at St. Paul's, and Tuſcan at St. Peter's	25	25
The ornaments of the ſame, above and below	14	16
The triangle of the mezzo-relievo, with its cornice	22	18
Width	92	74
The baſe of the cupola to the pedeſtals of the pillars	36	38
The pillars of the cupola	32	28
Their baſes and pedeſtals	4	5
Their capitals, architrave, frieze, and cornice	12	12
From the cornice to the outward ſlope of the cupola	25	40
The lantern, from the cupola to the ball	63	50
Diameter of the ball	9	6
The croſs, with its ornaments below	14	6
Statues on the front, with their pedeſtals	25	15
The outward ſlope of the cupola	89	50
The cupola and lantern, from the front cornice to the top of the croſs	280	240
Height of the front niches	20	14
Width	9	5
The firſt front windows	20	33
Width	10	7

It is to be mentioned with regret, that the great architect, to whom our capital was ſo highly indebted, was, in 1718, diſmiſſed from his employ (which he had for the ſpace of fifty years moſt honourably diſcharged) in favour of Mr. Benſon, whoſe demerits became ſoon ſo apparent, as to occaſion almoſt his immediate removal. Sir Chriſtopher ſurvived this ſhameful inſult five years: and died in his 91ſt year, on February 25th, 1723.

Avoiding the minuteneſs of a particular deſcription of the whole interior of this noble edifice, it may be intereſting to notice thoſe parts which are generally denominated its curioſities, and which inquiſitive viſitors pay for ſeeing.

St. Paul's is open for divine ſervice three times every day in the year; at ſix o'clock in the morning in ſummer, and ſeven in the winter; a quarter before ten o'clock in the forenoon,

and a quarter after three o'clock in the afternoon. At all other times the doors are ſhut, and no perſons admitted but ſuch as are willing to pay for ſeeing the church and its curioſities. Strangers will find admittance by knocking at the door of the northern portico. A perſon is ready within to paſs the viſitor to the ſtair-caſe leading to the curioſities. For which he demands four-pence. For this firſt coſt, the viſitor paſſes to the two galleries on the outſide of the church, the firſt being on the top of the colonnade, and the higheſt at the foot of the lantern. Many perſons pay no more than this firſt charge (four-pence), and amuſe themſelves by the proſpect from either, or both of the galleries. For each of the other curioſities there is a ſeparate charge; and the viſitor may ſee or paſs by which of them he pleaſes. The body of the church may be ſeen for two-pence.

The Library is the firſt object to be ſeen in the aſcent; the charge for which is two-pence. It is a handſome room, about fifty feet by forty, having ſhelves of books to the top, with a gallery running along the ſides. The floor is of oak, conſiſting of 2376 ſmall ſquare pieces, and is not only curious for its being inlaid without a nail or peg to faſten the parts, but is extremely neat in the workmanſhip, and very beautiful in its appearance. The collection of books is neither large nor very valuable. The principal things pointed out to a ſtranger, are ſeveral beautifully carved ſtone pillars; ſome Latin manuſcripts, beautifully written by Monks 800 years ago; and an Engliſh manuſcript illuminated, containing rules for the government of a convent, written in old Engliſh about 500 years ſince; but this and the others are in very fine preſervation. The portrait of Dr. Henry Compton, who filled the ſee during the whole time of building the cathedral, and who fitted up this library at his own expence, and gave it to the church, is placed over the fire-place, and has not only ſome merit in the painting, but fills the mind with pleaſure from the above circumſtances. The minor canons and other eccleſiaſtical officers of the cathedral, have acceſs to theſe books, and may borrow any of them under certain reſtrictions.

The Model, formed by Sir Chriſtopher Wren's order, from his firſt deſign for this cathedral, is that which no man of taſte will behold without indeſcribable emotions, both for its own exquiſite beauty, and for its being the favourite deſign of the great architect. A common miſtake, that ought to be particularly pointed out, is, that Sir Chriſtopher Wren took this deſign from St. Peter's at Rome. The plan was the invention of his own genius, working with the noble productions of other great men in his eye; but uſing theſe only as part of his materials,

terials, and confiding in his own creative mind for the effect he was ambitious to produce. The model is of one ſtory only, and much more ſimple in all other reſpects than the cathedral. For that elegance which reſults from the difficult union of ſimplicity and variety it is moſt conſpicuous. The wonderful power of the architect is diſcovered by the joint contemplation of this model, and of the church; the latter, departing as it does from the purity of his firſt conception, to meet the vulgar notions of ſuperſtition, yet preſenting a maſter-piece of the art of another kind. Still it is greatly to be lamented that this model was not preferred to that from which the church was built. Here is alſo a model of an altar-piece taken from St. Peter's at Rome, which the architect intended for this cathedral, had his own plan been followed. The charge for ſeeing theſe models is two-pence.

The Clock-work and *Great Bell* are to be ſeen for two-pence; the former is curious, both for the magnitude of its wheels and other parts, and the very great accuracy and fineneſs of its workmanſhip. The length of its pendulum is fourteen feet, and the weight at the extremity one cwt.

The Great Bell in the ſouthern tower weighs 11,470lbs. The hammer of the clock ſtrikes the hours on this bell, which may be heard at a great diſtance, and is uncommonly fine in its tone. The Great Bell is never tolled but on the death of the king, queen, or ſome of the royal family, or for the biſhop of London, or for the dean of St. Paul's; and when tolled, the clapper is moved and not the bell.

The Whiſpering Gallery is a very great curioſity. It is 140 yards in circumference. A ſtone ſeat runs round the gallery along the foot of the wall. On the ſide directly oppoſite the door by which the viſitor enters, ſeveral yards of the ſeat is covered with matting, on which the viſitor being ſeated, the man, who ſhews the gallery, whiſpers with his mouth cloſe to the wall, near the door, at the diſtance of 140 feet from the viſitor, who hears his words in a loud voice, ſeemingly at his ear. The mere ſhutting of the door produces a ſound to thoſe on the oppoſite ſeat like violent claps of thunder. The effect is not ſo perfect if the viſitor ſits down half way between the door and the matted ſeats, and ſtill leſs ſo if he ſtand near the man who ſpeaks, but on the other ſide of the door.

The marble pavement of the church is extremely beautiful ſeen from this gallery. The painting on the inner ſide of the dome (by Sir James Thornhill), is viewed with moſt advantage here. The ſubjects are the principal paſſages in St. Paul's life, treated in eight compartments: 1. His Converſion. 2. Puniſhing Elymas the Sorcerer with Blindneſs. 3. Curing the poor

Cripple at Lyſtra, and the worſhip paid him by the Prieſts of Jupiter as a god. 4. Converſion of the Jailor. 5. Preaching at Epheſus. 6. The burning of the Magic books in conſequence of the miracles he wrought there. 7. Trial before Agrippa. 8. His Shipwreck on the iſland of Melita (Malta), with the miracle of the Viper.

Theſe paintings are now going to decay.

An iron balluſtrade, running round the inner circle of the gallery, ſcreens the wall from the floor of the gallery to the painted pilaſters from the view of a ſpectator below, but that part of the wall is ſeen in the gallery, and is not only unornamented, but in a very dirty and unſeemly condition. The Whiſpering Gallery is ſhewn for two-pence

The Ball is to be ſeen for one ſhilling and ſixpence for each perſon; and one ſhilling more is paid to the guide; ſo that if only one perſon aſcends to the ball, it is at the expence of two ſhillings and ſixpence; if more than one, the guide having only a ſhilling, the expence to each is leſſened in proportion to the number. The aſcent to the ball is attended with ſome difficulty, and is encountered by few; yet both the ball and paſſage to it well deſerve the labour. The diameter of the interior of the ball is ſix feet two inches, and it will contain twelve perſons.

The proſpect from every part of the aſcent to the top of St. Paul's, wherever an opening preſents itſelf, is extremely curious. Perhaps the effect is moſt complete from the gallery ſurrounding the foot of the lantern. The metropolis from that ſpot has a kind of mimic appearance, like the objects in a *fantoccini*. The ſtreets, the pavements, the carriages, and foot paſſengers, have all the appearance of fairy ground and fairy objects. The ſpectator, contemplating the buſtle of the diminutive throng below, is removed a little out of the ſphere of his uſual ſympathy with them; and, as if they were emmets, aſks himſelf involuntarily, "in what are thoſe little, conſequential, eager animals engaged."

The form of the metropolis and the adjacent country is moſt perfectly ſeen from the gallery at the foot of the lantern, on a bright ſummer day. The aſcent to this gallery is by 534 ſteps, of which 260 neareſt the bottom are extremely eaſy; thoſe above difficult, and in ſome parts dark and unpleaſant. In the aſcent to this gallery may be ſeen the brick cone that ſupports the lantern, with its ball and croſs; the outer dome being turned on the outſide of the cone, and the inner dome turned on the inſide. The entire contrivance to produce the effect within the church and on the outſide, intended by the architect, is extremely fine and marvellous. From the pavement of the church the interior dome appears one uninterrupted dome to the

upper

upper extremity; but it conſiſts in fact of two parts, the lower and principal dome having a large circular aperture at its top, through which is ſeen a ſmall dome, that appears part of the great and lower dome, although entirely ſeparated from it; being turned alſo within the cone, but conſiderably above it. The timber work, which ſtrengthens at once the outer dome and the cone within it, is an object that the ſtranger will do well to inſpect. In a word, for the coſt of four-pence, as has been before obſerved, admits the viſitor to the higheſt gallery, hours may be paſſed in the contemplation of many curious and pleaſing objects.

The interior of St. Paul's has not, till of late, been adorned with monuments. Thoſe of the benevolent Howard, and the learned Johnſon, were the earlieſt; ſome others have been added. Royal proceſſions of pious commemoration have been uſual to this cathedral; two during the preſent reign have been extremely brilliant and intereſting, while that which was formed to eſcort to the grave the remains of the Britiſh hero, Lord Viſcount Nelſon, was perhaps the moſt affecting ſcene of the kind ever exhibited.

WESTMINSTER-ABBEY. Some account of the eſtabliſhment of this venerable ſtructure has neceſſarily been given in deſcribing the origin of the civil government of the city which derives its name from it. This noble ſpecimen of Gothic architecture is ſaid to have been founded about the year 610, by Sebert, king of the Eaſt Saxons, on the ruins of the temple of Apollo, flung down, quoth legend, by an earthquake. The king dedicated his new church to St. Peter, who deſcended in perſon with a hoſt of heavenly choriſters to ſave the biſhop Mellitus the trouble of conſecration. The ſaint deſcended on the Surrey ſide in a ſtormy night; but prevailing on Edric, a fiſherman, to waft him over, performed the ceremony; and as a proof, left behind the chriſm and precious droppings of the wax candles, with which the aſtoniſhed fiſherman ſaw the church illuminated. He conveyed the ſaint ſafely back; who directed him to inform the biſhop that there was no farther need of conſecration. He likewiſe directed Edric to fling out his nets, who was rewarded with a miraculous draught of ſalmons: the ſaint alſo promiſed to the fiſherman and his ſucceſſors, that they ſhould never want plenty of ſalmon, provided they preſented every tenth to his church. This cuſtom was obſerved till at leaſt the year 1382. The fiſherman that day had a right to ſit at the ſame table with the prior; and he might demand of the cellarer ale and bread; and the cellarer again might take of the fiſh's tail as much as he could with four fingers and his thumb erect.

This ill-contrived fable only ſhews the difficulty or impoſſibility of obtaining from the records of ancient times any certain truth with reſpect to the foundation of this church; its frequent deſtruction and reſtoration can alone be traced. The preſent elegant and magnificent pile was begun by Henry III., who pulled down the Saxon ſtructure of Edward the Confeſſor. In 1245, he began this great work, in the mode of architecture which began to take place in his days, but did not carry it on farther than four arches weſt of the middle tower; and the vaulting of this was not finiſhed till 1296. He did not live to complete his deſign, which was carried on by his ſucceſſor, but it may be ſaid to have never been finiſhed. It was ſlowly carried on by ſucceeding princes, and from the portcullis on the roof of the laſt arches, it appears that Henry VII. or VIII. had a concern in the repairs, that being the device of thoſe monarchs. It was never finiſhed: the great tower and two weſtern towers remaining incomplete at the Reformation; after which the two preſent towers aroſe: that in the centre is wanting. A caſual fire had long before deſtroyed the roof; but by the piety of Edward and ſeveral of the abbots, it was reſtored to the beauty and ſplendour we ſo juſtly admire. Henry performed two acts of pious reſpect to the remains of the founders of this abbey, which muſt not be omitted. He tranſlated thoſe of Sebert into a tomb of touchſtone, beneath an arch made in the wall. Above were paintings, long ſince defaced, done by order of the king, who was ſtrongly imbued with the love of the arts. But what does that prince the moſt honour, is the ſhrine which he cauſed to be made in honour of the Confeſſor, placed in a chapel which bears his name. This beautiful Moſaic work was the performance of Peter Cavalini, inventor of that ſpecies of ornament. It is ſuppoſed that he was brought into England by the abbot Ware, who viſited Rome in 1256. Weever expreſsly ſays, "he brought from thence certain workmen, and rich porphyry ſtones, whereof he made that curious, ſingular, rare pavement before the high altar, and with theſe ſtones and workmen he did alſo frame the ſhrine of Edward the Confeſſor." This beautiful memorial conſiſts of three rows of arches, the lower pointed, the upper round: and on each ſide of the lower is a moſt elegant twiſted pillar, an ornament the artiſt ſeems peculiarly fond of. Children, or childiſh age, has greatly injured this beautiful ſhrine, by picking out the Moſaic, through the ſhameful connivance of the attendant vergers.

Round this chapel are twelve others, all built by Henry III. They were an after-thought, and formed no part of the original deſign. Before this ſhrine ſeem to have been offered

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the *Spolia optima*. The Scotch regalia and their ſacred chair from Scone were offered here; and Alphonſo, third ſon to Edward I. who died in his childhood, preſented the golden coronet of our unfortunate prince the laſt Llewelyn. Along the freeze of the ſcreen of the chapel, are fourteen legendary ſculptures reſpecting the Confeſſor. They are ſo rudely done, that we may conclude that the art at this time was at a very low ebb. The firſt is the trial of queen Emma. The next the birth of Edward. Another is his coronation. The fourth tells us how our ſaint was frightened into the abolition of *Dane-gelt*, by ſeeing the devil dance upon the money bags. The fifth is the ſtory of his winking at the thief who was robbing his treaſury. The ſixth is meant to relate the appearance of our Saviour to him. The ſeventh ſhews how the invaſion or England was fruſtrated by the drowning of the Daniſh king. Eighthly, is ſeen the quarrel between the boys Toſti and Harold, predicting their reſpective fates. In the ninth ſculpture, is the Confeſſor's viſion of the Seven Sleepers. Tenthly, how he meets St. John the Evangeliſt in the guiſe of a pilgrim. Eleventhly, how the blind were cured by their eyes being waſhed in his dirty water. Twelfthly, how St. John delivers to the pilgrims a ring. In the Thirteenth, they deliver the ring to the king, which he had unknowingly given to St. John as an alms, when he met him in the form of a pilgrim. This was attended with a meſſage from the ſaint, foretelling the death of the king. And the Fourteenth ſhews the conſequential haſte made by him to complete his pious foundation.

The building in general and the curioſities in the interior of the abbey, (and in fact the whole building and its contents, form a ſeries of curioſities,) are deſcribed in various works, and particularly with great minuteneſs in Mr. Malcolm's Londinum redivivum, under the following heads; ſome of which demand notice here.

1ſt. The choir.

2d. Abbot Richard Ware's pavement, the materials of which are lapis lazuli, jaſper, porphyry, alabaſter, Lydian and Serpentine marbles, and touchſtone. It was made at the charge of the abbot, and is ſaid to have been purchaſed by him in France. An admirer of the arts muſt view it with the deepeſt regret. It was injured no doubt at the reformation, when the high altar was removed; at its reſtoration by queen Mary; and afterwards almoſt demoliſhed. The particulars relating to it are too long to be deſcribed here, but the following curious extract will ſhew the pains beſtowed on it, and the myſtic meaning it was intended to convey. The whole pavement exhibited various figures, the deſign of which was, to repreſent

the time the world was to laſt; or the *primum mobile*, according to the Ptolemaic ſyſtem, was going about, and was given in ſome verſes, formerly to be read on the pavement, relating to thoſe figures.

" Si lector poſita prudenter cuncta revolvat,
Hic finem primi mobilis inveniet.

Sepe-trina, canes et equos, homineſque ſubaddas,
Cervos et corvos, aquilas, immania cete;
Mundum; quodque ſequens pereuntes triplicat annos.
Sphæricus archetypum monſtrat globus hic microcoſmum.
Chriſti mileno, bis centeno, duodeno
Cum Sexago, ſubductis quatuor, anno,
Tertius Henricus Rex, Urbs, Odoricus, et Abbas
Hos compegere porphyreos lapides."

" Of theſe, and they ſeem to need it, this explanation is given." The threefold hedge is put for three years, the time a dry hedge uſually ſtood: a dog for three times that ſpace, or nine years, it being taken for the time that creature uſually lives: an horſe in like manner twenty-ſeven: a man, eighty-one: a hart, two hundred and forty-three: a raven ſeven hundred and twenty-nine; an eagle, two thouſand one hundred and eighty-ſeven: a great whale, ſix thouſand five hundred and ſixty-one: the world, nineteen thouſand ſix hundred and eighty-three: each ſucceeding figure giving a term of years, imagined to be the time of their continuance, three times as much as that before it. In the laſt four verſes, the time when the work was performed, and the parties concerned in it are expreſſed; the poet ſeems to have been under ſome difficulty to expreſs the time. By the reſt is meant, the king was at the charge, that the ſtones were purchaſed at Rome, that one Odorick was the maſter workman, and that the abbot of Weſtminſter, who procured the materials, had the care of the work."

3. The chapel of Edward the Confeſſor already mentioned, in which are the tombs of many of our kings, queens, princes, and princeſſes.

4. The Chantry, which contains many curious ſculptures and reliques of antiquity, and ſome excellent models of churches which were not all built.

5. The north tranſept, where are many monuments to illuſtrious men, one of the moſt conſpicuous of which is that which commemorates the great Earl of Chatham.

6. St. Paul's Chapel, which is ſimilarly occupied.

7. Henry the ſeventh's chapel; in the approach to which, notice is to be taken of the oratory of Henry V. The aſcent from the abbey to this chapel is formed by twelve ſteps. Over them is a moſt magnificent arch, of the ſame width as the nave.

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The pavement of the chapel is of black and white marble lozenges, in which is a ſquare, ſomething different in the ſhape of the pieces, containing a plate of perforated braſs. This is the only memorial the preſent royal family have to diſtinguiſh the place for their interment, and the only monument to the memories of King George and Queen Caroline; the late Dukes of Cumberland, &c. &c. The beauties of this aſtoniſhing piece of architecture are deſcribed at too much length to be inſerted here, indeed its magnificence and elegance can only be known by frequent inſpection, aided by the peruſal of thoſe authors who have moſt ſcientifically diſplayed them. In this chapel is performed the ceremony of inſtalling Knights of the Bath.

8. The chapel of St. Nicholas; 9. That of St Edmond; and, 10. That of St. Benedict, all which contain the tombs of illuſtrious men.

11. The ſouth tranſept, generally termed "Poet's Corner," for the well known reaſon that it contains the remains, or at leaſt the commemorative monuments of the moſt celebrated Britiſh bards.

12. The chapel of St. Blaſe, a biſhop and martyr; the patron ſaint of wool combers. In this part of the church, among many other monuments, is that to the celebrated David Garrick.

13. The ſouth aiſle; 14. The nave; 15. The middle aiſle, with 16, its pavement; and 17, the north aiſle, with 18, its pavement, all which are crowded with monuments, ſome of which are of the higheſt excellence.

19. The bells, which are ſix in number, and have appropiate inſcriptions.

Quitting the inſide of the church, the deſcription of the exterior follows, beginning with the cloiſters, of which the pavement, and the ſouth and eaſt ſides with their pavements, are alſo filled with monuments and inſcriptions.

The ancient Chapter Houſe demands particular notice. It was built in 1250; the entrance is on one ſide of the cloiſter, through a moſt rich and magnificent Gothic portal, the mouldings moſt equiſitely carved: this is divided into two Gothic doors. After a deſcent of ſeveral ſteps, is the Chapter Houſe, an octagon, each ſide of which had moſt ſuperb and lofty windows, now filled up, and lighted by leſſer. The opening into this room is as noble as that from the cloiſter. The ſtone roof is deſtroyed, and one of plank is ſubſtituted. The central pillar remains, light, ſlender, and elegant, ſurrounded by eight others; bound by two equidiſtant *faſciæ*, and terminated in capitals of beautiful ſimplicity. By conſent of the abbot, in 1377, the commons of Great Britain firſt held their parliaments

ments in this place, the crown undertaking the repairs. There they ſat till the year 1547, when Edward VI. granted the chapel of St. Stephen for that purpoſe. It is at preſent filled with the public records, among which is the original Domeſday book, now above ſeven hundred years old: it is in as fine preſervation as if it was the work of yeſterday. Beneath the chapter houſe is a very ſingular crypt. The roof, which forms the floor of the former, is ſupported by a ſhort round pillar, quite hollow. The top ſpreads into maſſy plain ribs, the ſupports of the roof. The walls are not leſs than eighteen feet thick, and form a moſt firm baſe to the ſuperſtructure. They had been pierced with ſeveral ſmall windows, which are now loſt by the vaſt increaſe of earth on the outſide; one is juſt viſible in a neighbouring garden. In this part are alſo various monuments.

The further deſcription of the outſide of the Abbey is worthy of peruſal in the work of Mr. Malcolm, but too long to be inſerted here. He has alſo added many curious particulars reſpecting diſtinguiſhed perſons who belonged to the Abbey, and funerals and coronations.

Not far from the Abbey ſtood the Sanctuary, the place of refuge abſurdly indulged in old times to criminals of certain denominations. The church belonging to it was in form of a croſs, and double; one being built over the other: it was of vaſt ſtrength, and was with much labour demoliſhed. Within its precincts was born Edward V.; and here his unhappy mother took refuge with her younger ſon Richard, to ſecure him from his cruel uncle, who had already poſſeſſion of the elder brother. Seduced by the perſuaſions of the Duke of Buckingham and Thomas Scott, alias Rotherham, archbiſhop of York, ſhe ſurrendered the little innocent, who was inſtantly carried to his brother in the Tower, where they were ſoon after involved in one common fate. To the weſt of the Sanctuary ſtood the Eleemoſynary or Almonry, where the alms of the Abbey were wont to be diſtributed. But it is ſtill more remarkable for having been the place where the firſt printing preſs ever known in England was erected. It was in the year 1474, when William Caxton, probably encouraged by the learned Thomas Milling, then abbot, produced *the game and play of the cheſſe*, the firſt book ever printed in theſe kingdoms. There is a ſlight difference about the place in which it was printed, but all agree that it was within the precincts of this religious houſe. Would the monks have permitted this, could they have foreſeen how certainly the art would conduce to their overthrow, by the extenſion of knowledge, and the publication of the long concealed truths of Chriſtianity?

Many other churches in the metropolis have ample claims to the notice of the reader, but to deſcribe them all would take up too much room in this work, and the taſk is ably performed in many other publications.

THE TOWER. The tower of London is ſituated on the north bank of the Thames, at the extremity of the city. The antiquity of the building has been the ſubject of much inquiry and diſcuſſion. That the Romans had a fort on the ſpot at preſent occupied by the Tower, is now paſt doubt, ſince the diſcovery of a ſilver ingot, and three golden coins; (one of the emperor Honorius, the others of Arcadius,) which were found in 1777, in digging for the foundation of a new office for the Board of Ordnance; through the foundation of certain ancient buildings, beneath which they were met with on the natural ground. The coins were ſuppoſed to have been part of the money remitted to pay the laſt legion; which was ever ſent to the aſſiſtance of the Britons. The Tower was the treaſury, in which the public money was depoſited. The preſent fortreſs is generally believed to have been built by the Conqueror, in his firſt year, and ſtrongly garriſoned with Normans, to ſecure the allegiance of his new and reluctant ſubjects. The firſt work ſeems to have been ſuddenly thrown up in 1066, on his taken poſſeſſion of the capital. The great ſquare tower, called the White Tower, was erected in 1078, when it aroſe under the directions of the great military architect Gundulph, biſhop of Rocheſter, who gave this noble ſpecimen of innovation, in the art of caſtle building, and which was purſued by him in the execution of Rocheſter-caſtle, on the banks of the Medway. The walls, which are eleven feet thick, have a winding ſtair-caſe, continued along two of the ſides, like that in the caſtle of Dover. This building was long dignified by the name of Cæſar's Tower: but that illuſtrious invader probably never ſaw London; originally it ſtood by itſelf. Fitz-ſtephen gives it the name of Arx Palatina, the Palatine Tower; and ſays, with his uſual romance, that the mortar of the foundation was tempered with the blood of beaſts. The Tower is ſeparated from the Thames by a platform, and part of the ditch. The former, and the parapet, were erected in 1761, when ſixty cannon, mounted on iron carriages, were placed there, merely for firing on rejoicing days, as there is no kind of cover for the artillery-men who work them. At each extremity of the platform, are paſſages to Tower-hill, and near that to the Eaſt, a place for proving muſkets. The ditch, of very conſiderable width and depth, proceeds north on each ſide of the fortreſs, nearly in a parallel line, and meets in a ſemi-circle; the

the ſlope is faced with brick, and the great wall of the Tower has been mended with that material ſo frequently, that it might almoſt be diſputed whether any part of it, but the turrets, had ever been ſtone. Cannon are planted at intervals round the line; they command every avenue leading to Tower-hill; and as the garriſon have a ſhelter, they might be fired during an inſurrection with great effect. The ditch is very much neglected, and ſeldom contains water ſufficient to cover the bottom completely. The ſtate of ſecurity, in which government have long conſidered the country to be, has operated conſpicuouſly within the Tower, where ſome hundreds of old houſes line the interior of the wall, to the evident injury of the place as a fortreſs. If heavy cannon were brought againſt the Tower, the lines would not be tenable one quarter of an hour, becauſe the balls taking place in thoſe houſes, muſt inevitably bring them down in rubbiſh, which would fall on the garriſon, and, ſtill worſe, clog the ports. This obſervation will apply beſides to the armoury on the north-ſide.

Within this Tower is a very ancient chapel, dedicated to St. John, for the uſe of ſuch of our kings and queens as might wiſh to pay their devotion here, ever ſince the time of William the Conqueror. It is of an oblong form, rounded at the eaſt end; on each ſide are five ſhort round pillars, with vaſt ſquared capitals, cut in different forms on their ſides, with a croſs on each; the arches are round, and all ſuits the architecture of its date. At the eaſt end are two pillars of the ſame form as the others. Above is a gallery, with windows with rounded arches, looking into the chapel. This gallery is ſaid to have been allotted for the females. The columns paſs down quite to the ground floor through a lower apartment, which is now a magazine of gunpowder. The chapel forms a part of the Record office, and is filled with papers.

Adjacent to this room is another very large one, alſo filled with papers. This is called the council chamber; in which many of the firſt moment have been held.

In 1092, a violent tempeſt did great injury to the Tower; but it was repaired by William Rufus, and his ſucceſſor. The firſt added another caſtellated building on the ſouth ſide, between it and the Thames, which was afterwards called Saint Thomas's Tower. Beneath that was Traitor's Gate, through which ſtate priſoners were brought from the river: and under another, properly enough called, the Bloody. In the ſouth-eaſt angle of the incloſure, were the royal apartments; for the Tower was a palace during near five hundred years, and only ceaſed

ceased to be ſo on the acceſſion of Queen Elizabeth. In Bloody Tower is a ſtraight room, or dungeon, called (from the miſery the unhappy occupier of this very confined place endures) the *Little Eaſe*.

Another portion of the building is called the *Wakefield Tower*, in a fine octagonal room, belonging to which, tradition records, that Henry VI. was murdered. This room is at preſent filled with papers belonging to the Record office, containing all the records from the Conqueſt to the year 1483. The reſt, to the preſent time, are kept in the Rolls Chapel. This Tower took its name from having been the place in which the priſoners, taken at the battle of Wakefield, were confined.

The Tower was firſt incloſed by William Longchamp, biſhop of Ely, and Chancellor of England, in the reign of Richard I. This haughty prelate, having quarrelled with John, third brother to Richard, under pretence of guarding againſt his deſigns, ſurrounded the whole with walls embattled, and made on the outſide a vaſt ditch, into which, in after-times, the water from the Thames was introduced. Different princes added other works. The preſent contents within the walls are, twelve acres, and five rods; the circuit, on the outſide of the ditch, one thouſand and fifty-two feet. It was again incloſed with a mud wall by Henry III.: this was placed at a diſtance from the ditch, and occaſioned the taking down a part of the city wall which was reſented by the citizens; who, pulling down this precinct of mud, were puniſhed by the king with a fine of a thouſand marks.

The *Beauchamp Tower*, is noted for the illuſtrious perſonages confined within its walls. Among them were the ill-fated Anna Bullen, and the good and accompliſhed lady Jane Grey.

Edward IV. built the *Lion's Tower*; it was originally called the Bulwark, but received the former name from its uſe. A menagerie had very long been a piece of regal ſtate; Henry I. had his at his manor of Woodſtock, where he kept lions, leopards, lynxes, porcupines, and ſeveral other uncommon beaſts. They were afterwards removed to the Tower. Edward II. commanded the Sheriffs of London to pay the keepers of the king's leopards ſixpence a day, for the ſuſtenance of the leopards; and three-halfpence a day for the diet of the keeper, out of the fee farm of the city. Henry alſo iſſued his order to the ſheriffs, to ſupply four-pence a day for the maintenance of his white bear, and his keeper, in the Tower of London. They were alſo to provide a muzzle, and an iron chain, to hold the ſaid bear out of the water; and a long cord to hold it during the time it was fiſhing in the Thames: they were beſides ordered to build a ſmall houſe in the Tower, for the king's elephant, and to make proviſion both for beaſt

and

and keeper. The royal menagerie is to this day exceedingly well ſupplied. The office of the keeper of the menagerie was added to that of conſtable of the Tower for the ſake of the emolument. In the reign of Henry VII. John de Vere, Earl of Oxford, was conſtable; and was appointed keeper of the lions, with the allowance of twelve-pence *per diem*, and ſix-pence for each beaſt.

The room in which the artillery is kept, and the armoury of ſmall arms above, (each three hundred and forty feet five inches long,) do great honour to the kingdom. They are in the moſt admiral order; and are ſaid to excel all other collections of the ſame kind in Europe.

The principal entrance to the Tower is on the weſt, and is wide enough to admit a carriage. It conſiſts of two gates on the outſide of the ditch; a ſtone bridge built over the ditch, and a gate within the ditch. The gates are opened in the morning with the following ceremony: the yeoman porter, with a ſerjeant and ſix men, goes to the governor's houſe for the keys; having received them, he proceeds to the innermoſt gate, and paſſing that, it is again ſhut. He then opens the three outermoſt gates, at each of which the guards reſt their firelocks, while the keys paſs and repaſs. On his return to the innermoſt gate, he calls to the wardens on duty, to take King George's keys; when they open the gate, and the keys are placed in the warden's hall. At night the ſame formality is uſed in ſhutting the gates; and as the yeoman porter, with his guard, is returning with the keys to the governor's houſe, the main guard, with their officers, are under arms, who challenge him with, *Who comes there?* he anſwers, *The Keys;* and the challenger replies, *Paſs Keys.* The guards, by order, reſt their firelocks; and the yeoman porter ſays, *God ſave King George;* the ſoldiers all anſwering, *Amen.* He then goes on to the governor's houſe, and there leaves the keys. After the keys are depoſited with the governor, no perſon can enter or leave the Tower, without the watch-word for the night. If any perſon obtains permiſſion to paſs, the yeoman porter attends, and the ſame ceremony is repeated.

The Tower is governed by the conſtable of the Tower, who, at coronations and other ſtate ceremonies, has the cuſtody of the crown and other regalia. Under him is a lieutenant, deputy-lieutenant, commonly called governor, tower-major, gentleman porter, yeoman porter, gentleman-gaoler, four quarter gunners, and forty warders. The warder's uniform is the ſame as that of the yeoman of the guards; their coats having large ſleeves and flowing ſkirts, made of fine ſcarlet cloth, laced round the edges and ſeams with ſeveral rows of gold

gold lace, and a broad laced girdle round their waists. On their backs and breasts is the king's silver badge, representing the thistle and rose, on which are the letters G. R. Their caps are round, flat at top, and tied about with bands of party coloured ribbands.

The Tower is garrisoned by the guards, and a detachment from his Majesty's third regiment.

The Tower is used as a state prison, and in general the prisoners are confined in the warders' houses, but by application to the privy council, they are usually permitted to walk on the inner platform, during part of the day, in company of a warder. The whole has recently undergone a thorough repair, and is open as a public promenade only on Sundays.

Few persons inhabit or visit the metropolis, who have not at some period made a visit of curiosity to the Tower: the objects worthy of attention are well described in a small book sold at the place.

Tower Hill has long been the place appointed for the execution of traitors. For a considerable time, there was a dispute between the crown and the city about the right to the Tower-hill. In the reign of Edward IV. the king's officers erected there a gallows, and a scaffold for the execution of offenders. The citizens complained; Edward immediately disavowed the act, by public proclamation, and resigned to them the monopoly of the axe and the halter; and vested in them the exclusive privilege of drawing, hanging, and quartering. From that time the fatal apparatus is always provided by the city. The condemned are delivered to the sheriffs by the lieutenant, who takes from the former a receipt for their delivery; the sheriffs then see execution done, as in other places.

The church of *St. Petrus ad Vincula*, within the Tower, has been the undistinguishing repository of the headless bodies of numbers, who ended their days on the adjacent hill; or, when greatly favoured, within the fortress. The ancient church was much more splendid, it being occasionally the place at which the kings of England performed their orisons. In the time of Henry III. here were stalls for the King and Queen; a chancel dedicated to Saint Peter, and another to Saint Mary. The church was adorned with a fine cross, images of Saints, various paintings, and several holy figures in painted glass.

The Monument. This pillar was erected to commemorate the awful calamity of the great fire, which began the 2d of September, 1666; and in four days consumed every part of this noble city within the walls, except what lies within a line drawn from the north part of Coleman-street, and just to the south west of Leadenhall, and from thence to the

Tower

Tower. Its ravages were alſo extended without the walls, to the weſt, as far as Fetter-lane, and the Temple. As it began in Pudding-lane, it ended in Smithfield, at Pye-corner; this circumſtance might occaſion the inſcription with the figure of a boy, on a houſe in the laſt place, which attributes the fire of London to the ſin of gluttony. The boy is repreſented wonderfully fat indeed!

The legiſlature, fully impreſſed with the importance of the event, determined to commemorate it by a magnificent memento, the execution of which they committed to Sir Chriſtopher Wren. The ſituation is extremely unfavourable, and rather dangerous, for this reaſon: an erection 202 feet in height, is ſupported by a baſe of no more than twenty-one feet ſquare, almoſt eternally ſhaken by heavy laden carriages, that paſs within a dozen feet of it. Another defect incident to the outline of a pillar is the difficulty of repair, and the ſtill greater difficulty of taking it down whenever any fiſſure may render ſuch a meaſure neceſſary, as there are no projections for the firm ſupport of ſcaffolds, or apertures to inſert tranſverſe ſcantlings. The Monument is a complete pedeſtal and column of the Doric order, with a balcony on the capital, and a circular attic, terminating in a gilt flame. Numbers of ſtrangers annually aſcend the ſpiral ſtairs within, in order to indulge that curioſity which is ever ready to overcome fatigue, and ſometimes to brave danger, for gratification. On the cap of the pedeſtal, at the angles, are four dragons, the ſupporters of the city arms: theſe coſt two hundred pounds, and were the work of Edward Peirce, jun. On the weſt ſide of the pedeſtal is a bas relief, cut by Gabriel Cibber, in admirable taſte. It repreſents emblematically this ſad cataſtrophe; Charles is ſeen, ſurrounded with Liberty, Genius, and Science, giving directions for the reſtoring of the city. Here the ſculptor found, luckily, one example to compliment the attention of the thoughtleſs monarch towards the good of his ſubjects: for, during the horrors of the conflagration, and after it was ſubdued, his endeavours to ſtop the evil, and to remedy the effects, were truly indefatigable. The king was ſeriouſly affected by this calamity, and many emotions of piety and devotion were excited in him. There was, for a ſhort time, great reaſon to expect the fruits of this his brief return to heaven: but they were quickly blaſted by the uncommon wickedneſs of the people about him, who, by every profane witticiſm on the recent calamity, and even by ſuggeſting that it was the bleſſing of God, to humble this rebellious city, and to prepare it for his yoke, ſoon removed every good thought from the royal breaſt.—This noble column was begun in 1671, and finiſhed in 1677; at the expence of 14,500*l.* The remaining ſides have long inſcriptions

tions, perpetuating the cauſe and progreſs of the fire, and the number of houſes, churches, and other public buildings, deſtroyed by it; the meaſures taken to rebuild the city, and to preſerve it from ſimilar calamities; and a philippic againſt the Roman Catholics, which was eraſed by order of James II. and reſtored after his abdication. An adventurous ſailor ſlid down a rope from the balcony, in September, 1732, to the Three-Tuns-Tavern, in Gracechurch-ſtreet; but a more extraordinary exploit was achieved the next morning, when a waterman's boy who had paid for aſcending, finding the ſtairs crowded, let himſelf down by the rope the ſailor had uſed, which hung perpendicularly from the gallery. Beſide theſe deſcents, the neighbours once ſaw that of a miſerable ſuicide, who was daſhed to pieces.

Temple Bar. As this is now the only remaining formal barrier of the city, and even this is expected to be ſpeedily removed, ſome deſcription of it may be preſerved here. It was erected from 1670 to 1672. The pilaſters are Corinthian, the pediment arched, and it is adorned with ſtatues of James I. his queen, and Charles I. and II. It is 54 feet in length, and 17 feet 3 inches in depth. The length is divided into eight parts; the gate in the midſt is two; the poſterns one each. The great arch is 13 feet ſix inches; height, two ſquares and one half circle. The ſide arches ſix feet nine inches; two ſquares in height, and the key ſtone. The columns are 24 feet, with baſe and capital. They are in diameter, one-tenth part of their height, (two feet four inches,) and they come out from the wall one-ſixth part of the diameter. The pedeſtal is ſeven feet high; the baſe one-fifth part of the columns; the architrave, frieze, and cornice, are in height one-fifth part of the columns, with baſe and capitals, or four feet nine inches by the architrave. Before the great fire, the barrier conſiſted only of poſts, rails, and chains. On this gate the heads of perſons executed for high treaſon, have uſually been affixed; it is alſo one of the places at which peace is proclaimed, with great ceremony; and when the ſovereign has thought fit to make proceſſions into the city for pious purpoſes, he has been met at this gate, and received with due ſolemnity by the Lord Mayor, and city officers.

Charing-Cross. Another public erection in the metropolis, to which curioſity attaches ſome intereſt, is one at the weſtern extremity of the Strand, called Charing-Croſs. This triangular ſpace was within the village of Charing, originally detached from London. The addition of *Croſs* proceeded from the conjugal piety of Edward I. who commanded the erection of that ſolemn type of chriſtianity, to commemorate

the progreſs of his lamented Eleanor's remains to the place of their interment. The croſs alluded to, ſtood where the ſtatue is now ſituated; it was deſtroyed by the religious fury of the reformers; but by drawings ſtill extant, it appears to have been of an octagonal form, and in an upper ſtage ornamented with eight figures. The croſs was in the next century replaced by a moſt beautiful and animated equeſtrian ſtatue, in braſs, of Charles I. caſt in 1633, by Le Sœuer, for the Earl of Arundel. It was not erected till the year 1678, when it was placed on the preſent pedeſtal, the work of Grinlyn Gibbons. The parliament had ordered it to be ſold and broke to pieces; but John River, the brazier who purchaſed it, having more taſte or more loyalty than his maſters, buried it unmutilated, and ſhewed them ſome broken pieces of braſs, in token of his obedience. M. d'Archenholz gives a diverting anecdote of this brazier; that he caſt a vaſt number of handles of knives and forks in braſs, which he ſold as made of the broken ſtatue. They were bought with great eagerneſs by the royaliſts, from affection to their monarch, and by the rebels, as a mark of triumph over the murdered ſovereign. It has been remarked as matter of ſome aſtoniſhment, that the artiſt has omitted a girth to the ſaddle.

THE ROYAL EXCHANGE. A place eſpecially ſet apart for the meeting of commercial men was not eſtabliſhed in London till the reign of Elizabeth. Sir Thomas Greſham, whoſe extenſive concerns made him well known to his fellow citizens, was the active and unwearied promoter of this deſign; toward the completion of which the city of London advanced about 4000*l.* for the purchaſe of eighty houſes, which were taken down, and the ground levelled at their expence. The ſite thus prepared, Sir Thomas agreed to erect the building. He laid the foundation the 7th of June, 1566, and, in November, 1567, completed what was then called the *Bourſe*. In 1570, Elizabeth went in great ſtate from her palace at Somerſet-Houſe, to make Sir Thomas a viſit at his own houſe. After dinner, ſhe went to the *Bourſe*, viſited every part, and then, by ſound of trumpet, dignified it with the title of *Royal Exchange*. All the upper part was then, and even at the early part of the laſt century, laid out in ſhops, which, on this occaſion, were filled with the richeſt productions of the univerſe, to ſhew her majeſty the commercial proſperity of her dominions. This ſtructure periſhed in the great fire. It was rebuilt in its preſent magnificent form, by the city and the company of mercers, at the expence of 80,000*l.* which, for a conſiderable time, involved the undertakers in a large debt. It was completed in 1669, and on

September

September 28th, in that year, was opened by the lord mayor, Sir William Turner, who congratulated the merchants on the occaſion. It now occupies a large ſpace of ground in Cornhill: the place for the meeting of merchants being a quadrangle of conſiderable ſize, adorned with ſtatues. That of Sir Thomas Greſham is in one corner, in the dreſs of his own times.

A figure of Sir John Barnard graces another part. The reſt are kings, which, (as far as Charles,) with that of Sir Thomas, were chiefly executed by Gabriel Cibber: that of Charles II. in the centre, was undertaken by Gibbons, but done by Quillin of Antwerp; above ſtairs are the ſtatues of Charles I. and II. and another of the illuſtrious founder, by John Buſhnell, an artiſt of inferior merit, in the reign of William III. The ſtatues of George I. and II. are by Ryſbrack; his preſent Majeſty's by Wilton, which was erected in March, 1764. The ſtatue of Charles II. in the area, was a few years ſince replaced by another, in a Roman habit, by Mr. Spiller.

Within this building is the celebrated coffee-houſe, called Lloyd's, the reſort of the ſuperior merchants, underwriters, and captains of trading veſſels, where buſineſs to an immenſe amount is daily tranſacted with liberality and honour; and where on many late occaſions, the acts and declarations of thoſe who frequent the houſe, have ſhewn, that in the breaſt of the Britiſh Merchant, the ſpirit of commerce is perfectly compatible with that of loyalty, patriotiſm, and charity.

The preſent building of the Royal Exchange is highly finiſhed, and much admired by perſons converſant in architecture. The ſteeple, which is very handſome, has for a vane, a gilt graſshopper, which is the creſt of Sir Thomas Greſham.

Somerset House. Another very conſiderable place of buſineſs, though formerly a palace, is Somerſet Houſe, ſituated in the Strand. It was founded on the ſite of ſeveral churches and other buildings, which were levelled for the purpoſe, by order of the protector Somerſet, in 1549. After his execution, his palace fell to the crown. In this palace, Queen Elizabeth reſided at certain times, Anne of Denmark kept her court, and Catherine, Queen of Charles II. dwelt during a portion of the life of her volatile ſpouſe, and continued after his death, until ſhe retired into her native country.

The architecture of Old Somerſet Houſe, was the mixture of Grecian and Gothic, introduced into England in the reign preceding its erection. The back-front, and the water gate, were built from a beautiful deſign of Inigo Jones, after the

year 1623. A chapel was begun by him in that year, and afterwards finiſhed. It was intended for the uſe of the Infanta of Spain, the deſigned ſpouſe of Charles I. when Prince of Wales; but on the failure of that romantic match, it ſerved for the uſes of the profeſſors of her religion. This palace was improved and beautified by the Queen dowager, Henrietta Maria, in 1662, when ſhe flattered herſelf with the hopes of paſſing the remainder of her days in England. At an early period of the preſent reign, this palace was ſettled by parliament on the Queen, but afterward exchanged for Buckingham Houſe. Somerſet Houſe was then taken down and rebuilt on an extenſive and magnificent ſcale, on a plan of Sir William Chambers, and the ſeveral parts were allotted to the uſe of ſeveral public offices and inſtitutions, with appropriate habitations for the principal perſons employed.

While yet unfiniſhed, it was deſcribed in the following terms, by Sir William Chambers, in a ſtatement ſubmitted by him to the Houſe of Commons, in 1780. The building which faces the Strand, extends in front 135 feet, is 61 feet deep, and has two wings, each 46 feet wide, and 42 in depth; the whole being ſeven ſtory high, is faced with Portland ſtone, built with hard Greyſtock bricks, Ruſſian timber, and the beſt materials of all kinds; and is covered, part with copper, and part with lead, or Weſtmoreland ſlate. All the fronts of this ſtructure are decorated with a ruſtic arcade baſement, a Corinthian order of columns and pilaſters, enriched windows, baluſtrades, ſtatues, marks, medallions, and various other ornamental works, neceſſary to diſtinguiſh this principal and moſt conſpicuous part of the deſign; which being in itſelf trifling when compared with the whole, required not only particular forms and proportions, but likewiſe ſome profuſion of ornaments, to mark its ſuperiority. Decorations too have been more freely employed in the veſtibule of entrance, and in all the public apartments of this building, than will be neceſſary in the remainder of the work; becauſe the veſtibule opens to the moſt frequented ſtreet in London, is a general paſſage to every part of the whole deſign; and the apartments are intended for the reception of uſeful learning and polite arts, they being ſet apart for the Royal Academy, the Royal Society, and the Society of Antiquaries.

The work juſt deſcribed forms the upper part of a large quadrangular court, being in width 210, and in depth 296 feet, which is to be ſurrounded with buildings 54 feet deep, and ſix ſtory high, containing the navy, and victualling navy-pay, victualling, and the ſick and hurt offices, the ordnance office, the ſtamp, ſalt, and tax-offices, the ſurveyor general

of crown lands, and the offices of the dutchies of Lancaſter and Cornwall, alſo the offices of the two auditors of impreſts and the pipe, the treaſurer's remembrancer, the clerk of the eſtreats, and comptroller of the pipe, with various apartments for ſecretaries, and other perſons whoſe reſidence in their ſeveral offices, has been judged convenient for the public ſervice. The river front extends 800 feet. This work is likewiſe all faced with ſtone, is built of the beſt materials, in the moſt ſubſtantial manner poſſible, and ſet on brick foundations, a great part of them laid in the bed of the river, with various expenſive but neceſſary precautions, and others ſunk through looſe made-ground, 10, 12, and even 16 feet deep. The greateſt part of the vaults too, ſurrounding the areas of this large quadrangle are turned, as alſo a great part of the croſs paſſage of communication from the area on one ſide to thoſe on the other, which are all built of hard greyſtocks, with ſtone plinths, neceſſarily ſet in moſt parts on very deep brick foundations. Beſides the progreſs made in the extenſive works already mentioned, the foundations are laid at a very conſiderable expence, in the river, for the embankment, to the extent of 438 feet, by a width of 46 feet, upon which is raiſed a ruſtic granite baſement 13 feet 7 inches high, with a range of arched ſtone galleries and apartments built thereon; the arches ſupport the ſtreet of the terrace, which is a ſingularly beautiful walk, affording a moſt delightful view. The coſt was computed at 250,000*l.* but a much greater ſum was expended.

WHITEHALL. Another palace of ancient days, now converted principally into offices for public buſineſs, is that of Whitehall. This manſion was originally built by Hubert de Burgh, earl of Kent, the great, the perſecuted juſticiary of England, in the reign of Henry III. He bequeathed it to the blackfriars in Holborn, and they diſpoſed of it to Walter de Grey, archbiſhop of York, in 1248. It became, for centuries, the reſidence of the prelates of that ſee, and was ſtyled York-Houſe. In it, Wolſey took his final leave of greatneſs. Henry VIII. became poſſeſſed of it about the year 1529, by the forfeiture of his fallen ſervant: the antient palace of Weſtminſter having ſometime before ſuffered greatly by fire. From this time it became the reſidence of our princes, till it was almoſt wholly deſtroyed by fire in 1697. Holbein executed a moſt beautiful gate at Whitehall, built with bricks of two colours, glazed, and diſpoſed in a teſſelated faſhion. The top, and that of an elegant tower on each ſide, were embattled. On each front were four buſts in baked clay, in proper

colours, which reſiſted to the laſt every attack of the weather: poſſibly this was the artificial ſtone revived in the laſt century. This ſtructure was ſacrificed to conveniency, as was another in 1723, built at the ſame time, but of far inferior beauty. The laſt blocked up the road to King-ſtreet, and was called King's gate. Henry built it as a paſſage to the park, the tennis-court, bowling green, cockpit, and tilt-yard.

In the time of James I. Whitehall was in a moſt ruinous ſtate. He determined to rebuild it in a very princely manner, and worthy of the reſidence of the monarchs of the Britiſh Empire. He began by pulling down the banqueting rooms, built by Elizabeth. That which bears the name at preſent, was begun in 1619, from a deſign of Inigo Jones, in his pureſt manner, and executed by Nicholas Stone, maſter maſon and architect to the king: it was finiſhed in two years, and coſt 17,000*l.* but was only a ſmall part of a vaſt plan left un-executed by reaſon of the unhappy times which ſucceeded. The cieling of this noble room cannot be ſufficiently admired; it was painted by Rubens, who had 3000*l.* for his work. It is ſaid that he was aſſiſted in the execution by his ſcholar Jordaens. The ſubject is the Apotheoſis of James I.; it forms nine compartments, one of the middle repreſents our pacific monarch on his earthly throne, turning with horror from Mars, and others of the diſcordant deities, and, as it were, giving himſelf up to the amiable goddeſs he always cultivated, to her attendants, Commerce and all the fine arts. This fine performance is painted on canvas, and is in good preſervation. The banquetting houſe has been many years converted into a chapel. In 1724, George I. ordered that the duty of preaching in this chapel, ſhould be performed by twenty-four prieſts, one half of whom were to be fellows of the univerſity of Oxford, and the other of Cambridge; two of them to be recommended monthly by the dean of the king's chapel, with ſalaries of 30*l.* per annum. The firſt ſermon under this regulation was preached on Eaſter-Sunday, April 5, 1724. Before the banquetting houſe, on a ſcaffold erected for the occaſion, Charles I. was beheaded, on the 30th of January, 1648-9. The king paſſed from the banquetting houſe to the place of his murder, through one of the windows.

From a complete plan of this great palace, taken by John Fiſher in 1680 and engraven by Vertue in 1747, it appears that it extended along the river, and in front along the preſent Parliament and Whitehall-ſtreet, as far as Scotland-yard; and on the other ſide of thoſe ſtreets, to the turning into Spring-Garden, beyond the Admiralty, looking into

Saint

Saint James's Park. Charles the Second, his queen, the duke of York, Prince Rupert, the duke of Monmouth, all the great officers, and all the courtly train, had lodgings within theſe walls; and all the royal family had their different offices, ſuch as kitchens, cellars, pantries, ſpiceries, cyder-houſe, bake-houſe, wood yards, coal yards, and ſlaughter houſe.

At preſent, that part of the ſite of Whitehall-Palace, which lies along the river, is occupied by the houſes of ſome of the nobility and gentry; among which the earl of Fife's and the duke of Buccleugh's are the moſt conſiderable. The banquetting houſe is on the eaſt-ſide of Parliament-ſtreet; and the Horſe Guards, the Treaſury, the Admiralty and other buildings, ſtand on the weſt, within the limits of the old palace.

The principal public offices now included in the ſite of this palace, are the Horſe-Guards, including the office of the ſecretary at war, the Admiralty, and the Treaſury.

In the vacant part of Privy Garden, is ſtill to be ſeen a noble ſtatue in braſs, of James II. executed by Grinlyn Gibbons, the year before he abdicated the throne. The artiſt received 300*l.* for his performance.

GUILDHALL. The great public hall of the city of London is placed at the northern extremity of King-ſtreet, Cheapſide. A more ancient ſtructure, ſuppoſed to have been erected for the ſame purpoſes in the days of Edward the Confeſſor, ſtood in the ſtreet now called Aldermanbury.

The preſent building was begun in 1411, the 12th of Henry IV. by Thomas Knowles, then mayor, and by his brethren the aldermen. Toward the charge, the companies gave great benevolences, and offences were pardoned in conſideration of ſums of money, which were expended on this work: extraordinary fees were alſo impoſed, and fines, amerciaments, and other extortionate levies employed, during ten years, for the completion of this building.

In 1415, Henry V. granted the city free paſſage for four boats by water, and as many carts by land, with ſervants to each, to bring lime, rag-ſtone, and free-ſtone, for the work of Guildhall. The executors of Whittington, gave 35*l.* toward paving the hall, and glazed ſeveral of the windows; in each of which the arms of that diſtinguiſhed merchant were emblazoned. The foundation of the Mayor's court was laid in the third year of the reign of Henry VI. and of the porch, on the ſouth ſide of the Mayor's court, in the following year. Then was built the Mayor's chamber, and the council chamber, with other rooms above ſtairs. Another new council chamber, with a handſome room over it, appointed for an

archive, to preſerve the books and records belonging to the city, and another under it, were finiſhed in 1615. But the lord mayor and aldermen kept their firſt court in the new council chamber, the 7th of November, 1625; Sir John Knolles, knight and alderman, being then lord mayor. Laſt, in the time of Henry VI. a ſtately porch, entering the great hall, was erected; the front, toward the ſouth, being beautified with images of ſtone, repreſenting, according to ſome, the cardinal virtues; and according to others, queens and illuſtrious ladies, benefactreſſes to the city. It is conjectured that the fiction of their repreſenting cardinal virtues was invented to preſerve them from the misjudging fury of thoſe, who, about the time of the reformation, thought they ſhewed a commendable zeal for religion, by deſtroying images, as relics of popiſh idolatry. Theſe ſtone ſtatues are venerable for their antiquity, and over-living the great fire of London, which greatly injured the building. After this event, Guildhall was reſtored in 1669, and finiſhed in its preſent ſtate, except the ſtone front, which was ſubſtituted for one more ancient, and completed in 1789.

The hall is a very noble room, being 153 feet long, 48 broad, and 55 in height to the roof, which is flat, divided into pannels. The floor is of ſtone: the walls are adorned on the northern and ſouthern ſides, with four Gothic demi-pillars, painted white, and veined with blue, the capitals being gilded. In this hall are portraits of ſome of our ſovereigns, and of ſeveral judges, among which are Sir Matthew Hale, and his eleven contemporary judges, who compoſed differences between landlord and tenant, after the great fire: and that of the earl of Camden, Lord Chief Juſtice of the Common Pleas, and afterward Lord Chancellor. There are alſo marble monuments, the one of alderman Beckford, voted during his life, in teſtimony of the city's approbation of a reply which he made to his majeſty, at St. James's; the other to the earl of Chatham, voted after his death, in gratitude for his illuſtrious ſervices. Others in commemoration of the valour of Lord Nelſon, and the partriotiſm of Mr. Pitt are in preparation.

Within the hall, oppoſite to the great door, is a balcony, in the front of which is a clock and dial, in a curious frame of oak; at the four corners, are carved the four cardinal virtues; and, on the top, time, with a clock on each ſide of him. On each ſide of the balcony is a giant of an enormous ſize, with a black and buſhy beard; one holding a long ſtaff, with a ball ſtuck with ſpikes, hanging at the end of it; the other an halbert. They are ſuppoſed to be an ancient Briton and a

Saxon:

Saxon: this balcony is ſupported by four iron pillars, in the form of palm trees.

Under the balcony is a flight of ſteps, leading to various offices. On the right hand are thoſe belonging to the Chamberlain; one where he ſits to make freemen, and perform other duties of his office, and the other the treaſury. Fronting the ſteps is the court of King's Bench. On the left, that of the court of Common Pleas, and up ſtairs, the court of Exchequer. At the back of the hall is a very elegant room for the lord mayor, aldermen, and common council, to hold their courts in. In the common council chamber is a capital collection of paintings, preſented to the city of London by the late public-ſpirited alderman Boydell.

The firſt time this hall was uſed on feſtive occaſions, was by Sir John Shaw, goldſmith, knighted in the field of Boſworth. After building good kitchens and other offices, in the year 1500 he gave here the Mayor's feaſt, which before had uſually been done in Grocers' Hall. Theſe entertainments at length grew to ſuch exceſs, that, in the time of Philip and Mary, a ſumptuary law was made to reſtrain the expence both of proviſions and liveries. Since that time however, luxury has again found its way into the city, and they who have partaken of the ſplendid hoſpitality of the Lord Mayor's inauguration dinner, will be among the laſt to vote for the retrenchment of a repaſt ſo convivial and joyous.

Adjacent to the hall, is Guildhall chapel, or college, a Gothic building, founded by Peter Fanlore, Adam Francis, and Henry Frowick, citizens, about the year 1299. The eſtabliſhment was a warden, ſeven prieſts, three clerks, and four choriſters. Edward VI. granted it to the mayor and commonalty of the city of London. Here uſed to be ſervice once a week, and alſo at the election of the mayor, and before the Mayor's feaſt, to deprecate indigeſtions, and all plethoric evils. At preſent, divine ſervice is diſcontinued, the chapel being uſed as a juſtice room. Adjoining to it once ſtood a fair library; furniſhed with books belonging to Guildhall, built by the executors of the famous Whittington.

The cauſes at law determined within the city are tried in the courts already deſcribed in Guildhall; there are in the metropolis ſeveral other buildings wherein the buſineſs of civil and criminal juſtice is tranſacted, the chief of which may here be mentioned. Weſtminſter-hall, it may be recollected, has been already noticed in Vol. II. p. 526.

Old Bailey. The Seſſion-houſe in the ſtreet known by this name, is for the trial of priſoners accuſed of felonies within

within London and Middleſex, and ſome inferior offences in London. The ſeſſions are held eight times in the year, and, as by charter, the lord mayor has a right to preſide, and the aldermen to ſit; they come attended by their proper officers, the recorder and common ſerjeant; and three of the twelve judges attend in rotation to hold theſe important ſeſſions. The court is ſpacious and commodious, contiguous to the county gaol, Newgate, where the priſoners are confined, and conſtructed with due attention to that change of air which is neceſſary to prevent contagion from infectious diſeaſes. At the upper end of the court is the bench for the judges; below them a table, at which are placed the counſel and ſolicitors, and in front of them the clerk of the arraigns, with his attendant officers. On the left hand of thoſe who ſit in the ſame aſpect with the judges is the box for the jury; oppoſite them the box for the witneſſes, and at the other end of the court the bar, where the priſoner is placed. Above the jury is the box for ſtudents, and around the upper part of the hall, are galleries to which ſtrangers are admitted on paying moderate fees. The London and Middleſex juries ſit alternately, and for thoſe who are not engaged in trying the cauſe before the court, a box is provided, and there are ſuitable offices without.

CLERKENWELL. The Seſſion-houſe on Clerkenwell-green is for the trial of miſdemeanors, petty larcenies, and appeals againſt the acts and convictions of magiſtrates, in the county of Middleſex only. The ſeſſions are held eight times in the year, and the grand jury, which ſits within theſe walls, finds and returns bills for offences to be tried, not only here, but at the Old Bailey. The ſeſſion-houſe was originally in St. John's-ſtreet, and was called Hicks's Hall. James I. in the year 1610, granted his letters patent, bearing date June 17, for a piece of ground, containing 128 feet of aſſize from north to ſouth in length, and 32 from eaſt to weſt in breadth, reſerving a way of 20 feet on every ſide thereof, for the uſe of Sir Thomas Lake, and others, juſtices of the peace for the county of Middleſex, to erect a ſeſſion-houſe, priſon, and houſe of correction. They erected the ſeſſion-houſe in 1612; but the ground being found to be too ſmall for the priſon; they purchaſed a piece of land at the eaſt end of St. James's-ſtreet, where the priſon was built. In 1777, the hall having become extremely ruinous; and its vicinity to Smithfield market, being found to interrupt buſineſs, the juſtices petitioned the Houſe of Commons for permiſſion to rebuild it, on the ſame ſite, to take in part of the highway, and raiſe a ſum

not

not exceeding 12,000*l.* for the purpoſe. Their petition being finally ſucceſsful, a piece of freehold ground was purchaſed, at the weſt end of Clerkenwell-green, for about 2000*l.*; and 11,000*l.* were to be borrowed, for erecting the building. The front is of ſtone, with a ruſtic baſement, and before it a railed area. The door is approached by ſix ſteps. Two windows on each ſide in deep arches. Four Ionic pillars, and two pilaſters, ſupport an architrave, frieze, and cornice, with a pediment over the pillars. The windows are alternately arched and flat on the tops. Over the middle windows is a medallion of his Majeſty; over the others, ſwords, faſces, &c.; above the flat ones reliefs of Juſtice, &c.; and in the tympanum the county arms. The roof forms a dome in the centre. The remainder of the building is of brick, and therefore plain. The court is up ſtairs; a light, airy room, ſomewhat fancifully, but not altogether commodiouſly conſtructed.

Other Halls. Beſides theſe, there is a court-houſe, or Guildhall at Weſtminſter, for tranſacting the buſineſs of the ſeſſion, ariſing peculiarly within that city; and a ſimilar ſeſſion is holden for London in Guildhall.

Police. Many perſons whoſe attention is ſtrongly devoted to conſiderations on the means of preventing crimes, and ſecuring property, lament the ſtate of the police of the metropolis, as injurious to the community, and diſgraceful to the legiſlature. Others, on the contrary, looking at the ſtate of ſociety with a more extenſive and liberal conſideration, admire the general ſecurity that prevails, without reſtraint on individual freedom, and know how to value a ſocial ſyſtem which by removing from the guilty the irritating preſence of ſpies and informers, renders criminals leſs ferocious, and confines depredators to attacks on property alone, without injury to the perſon of the ſufferer. The advocates of a ſtrict police expatiate with pleaſure on the ſyſtem eſtabliſhed under the old government of France, and imitated by ſome other nations on the continent; while their opponents glory in living in a country where the operations of the police are not perceptible amidſt our ordinary tranſactions, but its aid is only reſorted to on extraordinary occaſions. While the former point to what they call a black catalogue of crimes and a horrible ſeries of executions; the latter aſſert that the crimes are in general too ſlight to merit capital puniſhment; but that, even admitting the number of depredators to be as great as they are repreſented, they are inſignificant in proportion to the immenſe quantity of property which is daily expoſed to depredation, and guarded only

only by the love of right, and fear of the law, which reſtrain offenders without the intervention of a burdenſome and haraſſing police.

The police of the metropolis is thus deſcribed and commented on by Mr. Colquhoun, in a treatiſe on the ſubject, which has been much admired, and very generally read.

Twenty-ſix magiſtrates, forming that reſpectable body, comprehending the lord mayor and aldermen, ſit in rotation every forenoon, at the Manſion-houſe, and at Guildhall, and take cognizance of all matters of the police within the ancient juriſdiction of the city of London; while twenty-ſix eſtabliſhed magiſtrates, appointed for every other part of the metropolis, including the River police, having particular offices or courts of juſtice aſſigned them at convenient diſtances in Weſtminſter, Middleſex, and Surrey, ſit every day (Sunday excepted) both in the morning and evening, for the purpoſe of executing all the multifarious duties connected with the office of a juſtice of the peace, which unavoidably occur in large ſocieties.

The offices are at the following places, each having three magiſtrates, except the marine police, which has only two. Bow-ſtreet, Covent-garden, the old Rotation office; ſeven eſtabliſhed by ſtat. 32 Geo. III. c. 53.* and ſituated at Queen's-ſquare, Weſtminſter; Great Marlborough-ſtreet, Oxford-road; Hatton-garden, Holborn; Worſhip-ſtreet, Finſbury-ſquare; Lambeth-ſtreet, Whitechapel; High-ſtreet, Shadwell; and Union-ſtreet, Southwark. There is alſo a marine police at Wapping New-ſtairs, eſtabliſhed in 1798.

This inſtitution of eſtabliſhed juſtices, Mr. Colquhoun, proceeds (except with regard to the three magiſtrates at Bow-ſtreet, and the juſtices at the marine police office) was ſuggeſted to the legiſlature, in conſequence of the preſſure felt by the public, from the want of ſome regular and properly conſtituted tribunals for the diſtribution of juſtice; where the ſyſtem ſhould be uniform; and where the purity of the magiſtrates, and their regular attendance, might inſure to the people, the adjuſtment of their differences, at the leaſt poſſible expence; and the aſſiſtance of gratuitous advice in every difficulty; as well as official aid, in all caſes within the ſphere of the magiſtrates in their reſpective diſtricts.

The duty of theſe eſtabliſhed magiſtrates, (in conjunction with other juſtices of the peace, who find it convenient to give their aſſiſtance,) extends alſo to ſeveral important judi-

* Since the publication of Mr. Colquhoun's treatiſe, this act has been repealed, and the powers and duties of the magiſtrates more accurately defined by ſtat. 42 Geo. III. c. 76

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cial proceedings; where, in a great variety of inſtances, they are empowered and required to hear and determine, in a ſummary way; particularly in caſes relative to the cuſtoms, exciſe, and ſtamps; the game-laws, hawkers and pedlars; pawn-brokers, friendly ſocieties, highways, hackney-coaches, carts, and other carriages, quakers and others refuſing to pay tythes, appeals of defaulters in parochial rates, miſdemeanors committed by perſons unlawfully pawning property not their own, bakers for ſhort weight, &c.; journeymen leaving their ſervices in different trades; labourers not complying with their agreements; diſorderly apprentices; alehouſe keepers keeping diſorderly houſes, nuiſances by different acts of parliament; acts of vagrancy by fraudulent lottery inſurers, fortune-tellers, perſons of evil fame found in avenues to public places, with an intent to rob: as well as a multitude of other offences, in which juſtices have power to proceed to conviction and puniſhment, either by fine or impriſonment.

The duty of the magiſtrates alſo extends to a vaſt number of other objects, ſuch as licenſing public-houſes, and eſtabliſhing rules and orders for publicans, watching over the conduct of publicans, ſwearing in, charging and inſtructing parochial conſtables and headboroughs from year to year, with regard to their duty; iſſuing warrants for privy ſearches; and in conſidering the caſes of perſons charged with being diſorderly perſons, or rogues and vagabonds, liable to be puniſhed under the act of the 17th of Geo. II. cap. 5. and ſubſequent acts of Parliament; in making orders to pariſh officers, beadles, and conſtables, in a variety of caſes; in pariſh removals, in billetting ſoldiers, in conſidering the caſes of poor perſons applying for aſſiſtance, or admiſſion to workhouſes, in granting certificates and orders to the wives of perſons ſerving in the militia; and alſo in attelling recruits for the army; in attending the general and quarter ſeſſions of the peace, and in viſiting the workhouſes, bridewells, and priſons.

In addition to theſe various duties, many criminal caſes occur in the courſe of a year, which are examined for the purpoſe, if neceſſary, of being ſent to ſuperior tribunals for trials: ſuch as charges of treaſon, murder, coining, and uttering baſe money, arſon, manſlaughter, forgery, burglary, larceny, ſedition, felonies of various deſcriptions, conſpiracies, frauds, riots, aſſaults, and miſdemeanors of different kinds:—all which unavoidably impoſe upon every official magiſtrate, a weight of buſineſs requiring great exertion, and an unremitting attention to the public intereſt, in the due execution of this very important truſt.

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The power of the police magiſtrates in preventing crimes was greatly increaſed by the ſtatute 42 Geo. III. c. 76. which recites, that whereas divers ill-diſpoſed and ſuſpected perſons and reputed thieves frequent the avenues to places of public reſort, and the ſtreets and highways, with intent to commit felony; and although their evil purpoſes are ſufficiently manifeſt, the power of juſtices of the peace to demand of them ſureties for their good behaviour, has not been of ſufficient effect to prevent them from carrying their evil purpoſes into execution; and enacts, That, it may be lawful for any conſtable, headborough, patrole, or watchman, to apprehend ſuch perſons and convey them before any juſtice of the peace; and if it ſhall appear, upon the oath of one credible witneſs, that ſuch perſon is a perſon of evil fame, and a reputed thief, and he ſhall not be able to give a ſatisfactory account of himſelf, and of his way of living, and it ſhall alſo appear, to the ſatisfaction of the juſtice, that there is juſt ground to believe that he was in the ſtreet, or highway, with ſuch intent as aforeſaid, every ſuch perſon ſhall be deemed a rogue and a vagabond within the intent and meaning of the vagrant act. But if the party thinks himſelf aggrieved, he may give bail and appeal to the ſeſſion, who may, if the conviction is affirmed, adjudge him to be a rogue and vagabond; but not ſentence him in any caſe to more than ſix months impriſonment in the whole, including any time he may have been previouſly detained.

Prisons. The various priſons of the metropolis for detention and puniſhment of criminals, and ſafe cuſtody of debtors are next to be deſcribed. The principal ſource of information has been Mr. Nield's account of the various priſons in England, Scotland, and Wales, included in his account of the Society for relief of perſons impriſoned for ſmall debts.

Newgate. This priſon derives its name from the gate which, till within theſe few years, formed a part of it, and ſtood a little beyond the Seſſion-houſe in the Old Bailey: as a military way has been traced under it, there can be no doubt but there had been one during the time the city was poſſeſſed by the Romans: but the place had been made up, and no veſtiges of it left. The gate which ſupplied its place, is ſuppoſed by Stowe to have been erected between the years 1108 and 1128, when Richard Beauveyes, biſhop of London, by enlarging the precincts of St. Paul's, had obſtructed the uſual way under Ludgate, and made this new outlet neceſſary. Mr. Howel ſays, that the original name was Chamberlain

Chamberlain Gate. It had been for ages a priſon, even as long ago as the year 1218; and for perſons of rank, long before the Tower was uſed for that purpoſe. This gate was rebuilt by the executors of the famous Sir Richard Whittington, out of the effects he had allotted for works of charity: his ſtatue, with the cat, remained in a niche to its final demolition, on the rebuilding of the preſent priſon. It was deſtroyed in the fire of 1666, and rebuilt in its late form. It had one great arch, and one poſtern for paſſengers: and on each ſide a half hexagon tower.

The old priſon of Newgate was deſcribed to the Legiſlature, as an accumulation of miſery and inconvenience, which could only be remedied by almoſt rebuilding it altogether at a calculated expence of 50,000*l.* In 1778 the corporation of London had expended 52,585*l.* upon the rebuilding of the priſon; and they gave up to the public, for the ſite of that gaol and the Seſſions-houſe, a piece of freehold ground 600 feet in front on the Old Bailey, and about 50 on Newgate-ſtreet, which was worth ten ſhillings per foot running meaſure, the latter was valued at fifteen ſhillings for building on, and the rent at 300*l.* per annum. In addition to thoſe liberal proceedings, they expended 14,464*l.* of their own money, in erecting the Seſſion-houſe, and 6,250*l.* for the purchaſe of freehold houſes to be taken down for making avenues to the gaol. Many unforeſeen expences attended the execution of this great work; one of which was the neceſſity of ſinking the foundations forty feet in depth, owing to the ſite being on that of the ditch of London-wall; another was the charge of ſhoring neighbouring houſes, to prevent their falling. The ſum expended in this way amounted to 19,000*l.* Newgate was nearly completed, when the mob, influenced by the frenzy of Lord George Gordon, in June 1780, rendered it a mere ſhell, by burning every thing combuſtible within it. The felons confined even in the ſtrongeſt holds were releaſed; ſtones of two or three tons in weight, to which the doors of their cells were faſtened, were raiſed by that reſiſtleſs ſpecies of crow, well known to houſe-breakers by the name of the *Pigs-foot*. Such was the violence of the fire, that the iron bars of the windows were eaten through; and the adjacent ſtones vitrified. Mr. Dance eſtimated the ſum neceſſary for repairs at 30,000*l.*; and the Houſe of Commons commenced the work by a vote of 10,000*l.*; ſubſequent applications were made by the corporation, which enabled them to finiſh it as we now ſee it, with a black ruſtic wall, broken

at

at intervals by niches partially filled with ſtatues and grated windows.

The ſalary of the keeper of Newgate is 450*l.*; and the priſoners pay 8*s.* 10*d.* fees, and 13*s.* 6*d.* on the maſter's ſide, or 9*s.* 6*d.* on the common ſide, garniſh. Thoſe unable to comply with the latter demands are under the neceſſity of cleanſing the wards; the materials for which purpoſe, with coals, candles, and wood, are purchaſed from the garniſh money.

The chaplain or ordinary of Newgate, receives 26*l.* per annum; for that ſum he reads prayers twice on Sundays, on Wedneſdays and Fridays, preaches on Sunday morning, repeats private prayers with thoſe under ſentence of death on Tueſday and Thurſday, and, after the report, attends criminals twice a day, and on the morning of execution. A ſurgeon at a ſalary of 100*l.* attends daily; the medicines uſed by him are paid for by the corporation of London.

Every debtor is allowed a loaf of the beſt bread, weighing twenty ounces, and a pound and a half of potatoes; the ſame claſs of unfortunates on the poor and women's ſide have 112lb. of beef weekly, termed *clods* and *ſticking*s, provided by the ſheriffs; beſides this allowance, they have various donations equally divided.

Mr. Nield, in his work on priſons, ſays, The part appropriated for debtors, three-fourths of the north-weſt angle of the priſon, conſiſts of fourteen wards, twenty-three feet by fifteen feet ſix inches, and eleven feet high, for the men; and two wards for the women, one thirty-ſix feet by fifteen, the other eighteen feet by fifteen. As neither bed nor bedſtead is provided, thoſe who cannot procure them are allowed a rug. The area for the men, well ſupplied with water, is forty-nine feet ſix inches, by thirty-one feet ſix inches; that for women, is forty-nine feet ſix inches, by fifteen feet nine inches; the ſexes are ſeparated by a wall fifteen feet high; debtors are permitted to work if they can obtain it, but there is none provided; 285 men, and 40 women have been at once in Newgate for debt. Two rooms are appropriated for ſick felons of both ſexes; and, as there is no infirmary for debtors, they are compelled to lie, when ill, with the felons. The chapel is plain and neat, and the moſt perfect order is preſerved during prayers.

GILTSPUR-STREET COMPTER. The origin of this priſon, Mr. Nield obſerves, is ſomewhat enveloped in obſcurity; but, in Stowe's Survey of London, the following record (made

(made in the reign of Henry I.) is recited:—*Rex vic. London. ſalutem: Ex gravi querelâ B. capt. et detent. in priſona noſtra dè Cripplegate pro £.10 quas coram Radulpho de Sandivico tunc cuſtod. civitatis noſtræ London. et I. de Blackwell civis recognit. debit, &c.* From this record, it appears that Cripplegate, which was one of the four original gates of this city, was then a priſon, as the Compter now is, for citizens and others for debt or treſpaſs: and was rebuilt in 1244, and again in 1491, and was laſt repaired in 1663. In the mean time, and in the thirteenth century, a priſon was built for the reception of night-walkers, and other ſuſpicious perſons, which, from its ſhape, was called the Tun, and was ſituated on Cornhill. Afterward there was a priſon in Bread-ſtreet, pertaining to the ſheriffs, which was called the Compter, and, in 1518, ſeems to have been recognized by the act for eſtabliſhing the Court of Conſcience, which empowered its commiſſioners to commit to one of the Compters for debts not exceeding forty ſhillings; but now, by ſubſequent acts, extended to five pounds. In this compter priſoners were received until the year 1552; when, by reaſon of the keeper's miſconduct, they were removed to a new compter in Wood-ſtreet, provided by the city, and built for that purpoſe, which was burned in the general conflagration of 1666, and rebuilt more commodious than before, and continued to receive priſoners until the ſecond day of April, 1791, when the priſoners were removed to the preſent compter in Giltſpur-ſtreet.

It appears neceſſary here to remark, that each ſheriff of London has a court of record, as well as a compter, where he preſides. Theſe courts are now held at Guildhall, every Wedneſday and Friday, for actions, entered at this compter, and on every Thurſday and Saturday for actions entered at the Poultry, excepting holidays, and a vacation in the month of Auguſt; and each ſheriff has his office at his reſpective compter, where his clerk-ſitter attends for entering actions, &c.; and alſo to diſcharge ſuch debtors as become entitled to their releaſe.

Giltſpur-Street Compter, is now appropriated for the reception of debtors, felons, and other offenders, and alſo for vagrants, and night charges, (the watch houſes in this city not being permitted to retain priſoners therein;) but the conſtable of the night muſt forthwith commit them to the compter in his diſtrict; from whence a liſt of the night charges ſo committed, is the next morning returned to the lord mayor, or one of the aldermen, in order that the parties may be examined,

touching the cauſe of their commitment, and be either diſcharged, bailed, or re-committed, to anſwer for their reſpective offences, according to due courſe of law.

The priſoners are divided into four claſſes, viz. thoſe for debt, felony, miſdemeanors and aſſaults, and vagrants; and the priſon into nine ſeparate and diſtinct yards, with various degrees of accommodation. There are alſo very convenient cold and hot baths, to which all priſoners have free acceſs as neceſſity requires, and at convenient ſeaſons.

The allowance to priſoners of all deſcriptions, is at preſent ten ounces of wheaten bread, daily; one pound of rice, and about five pounds of potatoes each, weekly; coals, and other gifts by the lord mayor and ſheriffs; and broken victuals from the Old and New London Taverns frequently.

Paupers brought to this compter, as ſuch, in order to be removed to their pariſhes, or otherwiſe relieved, are eſpecially ſubſiſted, and frequently cloathed.

On New-year's day, at Eaſter, and ſome uncertain day after, one pound of beef, one pint of porter, and one loaf, value three-halfpence, or potatoes in lieu thereof, are given by the lord mayor and ſheriffs, who alſo occaſionally give coals, according to their diſcretion. There are alſo ſome permanent donations of bread and meat at ſtated periods, which, together with the ſheriff's ſeven ſtone of meat weekly, belongs to the charity wards only, and are diſtributed among ſuch priſoners in the ſaid wards, as have attended and properly demeaned themſelves in the chapel during divine ſervice on the preceding ſunday. The chapel clerk, by order of the court of aldermen, receives half a crown every Sunday for aſſiſting the chaplain, and ſetting the pſalm.

Money is paid by ſeveral of the city companies, by the common council of Farringdon Within, by the truſtees of Mrs. Aſhton's charity, and others, toward the releaſe of debtors in this and other priſons, and is moſt frequently applied toward the diſcharge of priſoners who cannot obtain their liberty without undertaking to pay ſome further ſum in addition to the money raiſed by ſuch donations, and who are thereby prevented from availing themſelves of the bounty of the ſociety for relief of debtors held in Craven-ſtreet in the Strand. All the donations belonging to the charity wards are delivered to one of the priſoners, who acts as ſteward; in whoſe name, witneſſed by the keeper, all the receipts are ſigned, and given under the common ſeal of the priſon: this ſteward receives alſo the ſubſcriptions before mentioned; and himſelf pays a rent to the general ſtock for the uſe of two cloſets,

which

which he again lets to his own advantage; he advances money upon the credit of the donations, out of which he reimburſes himſelf, as they become due; pays five per cent to a collector, furniſhes the charity wards with a conſtant ſupply of coals, wood, ſalt, candles, &c. beſides paying a weekly allowance to a baſket woman to collect broken victuals at the taverns, and for other meſſages, on account of the ſaid wards; alſo contributes toward the ſupport of ſuch common ſide debtors, as may, by the ſurgeon's order, be placed in the ſick ward; pays alſo a weekly allowance to the ſcavenger, and his aſſiſtant, called the twelver; and is of real uſe to the priſon at large. This plan of the application of the donations was firſt adopted by Mr. Kirby, when keeper of Wood-Street Compter, and appears to be the moſt beneficial to the unfortunate, as every comfort to be procured by the donations, is thereby equally and impartially afforded; no diſputes can ariſe from the quarterly diviſion of money, nor can the priſon be defrauded, as the ſteward is obliged to ſubmit his accounts to be audited by four of the ſenior priſoners; and though elected by the general ſuffrages of the charity-wards, cannot be diſpoſſeſſed ſo long as he ſhall act ſoberly, honeſtly, and for the general advantage, and ſhall not be guilty of breach of the truſt repoſed in him by the keeper.

No expence attends the commitment of priſoners to this Compter, either upon civil or criminal proceſs; nor does any expence attend any perſon's confinement, unleſs at their own requeſt, they are admitted on the maſter's ſide. Upon civil actions brought in the ſheriff's court, there are fees of moderate amount, and an expence is incurred by priſoners of all deſcriptions, upon their diſcharge.

The rules and orders for the government of this priſon, were ſigned, 27th November, 1792, by Lords Kenyon and Loughborough, and by aldermen Croſby, Anderſon, and Combe; they relate principally to debtors; the execution is veſted in the keeper and his turnkeys.

Poultry Compter. In this priſon there were formerly for maſter's ſide debtors, fifteen rooms betwixt the inner and the outer gates; for the uſe of which, each priſoner paid two ſhillings snd ſixpence per week. For common ſide debtors, ſix wards within the inner gate; two of them on the ground floor called the King's ward, and the Prince's ward; in the former of which, November 12, 1803, were ſeven debtors, and in the latter the ſame number.

On the firſt floor, or ſtory, were the women's ward, with two debtors, the middle ward (ſo called probably from its being between the women's and Jews' ward,) containing ſix debtors;

and the Jews ward, with a ſeparate ſtaircaſe leading to it, in which were two Jew debtors. Theſe debtors had ten wives and fifteen children living with them in the priſon, and were allowed one rug each by the city, but were expected to provide their own beds.

To each ward there is a fire-place. In one of the rooms on the ſecond floor, called the *Pump-room*, the debtors had the convenience of water. The court yard here is very ſmall, paved with flag ſtones, and had water continually running through it. In the paſſage court was a day-room for felons, and a ſmall one adjoining to it for debtors. They have iron-grated windows, oppoſite the public-houſe, kept within the gates of the priſon, and from which they were conſtantly ſupplied with liquor.

Men felons ſlept in two ſtrong rooms, planked with oak, and ſtudded with large broad-headed nails, on boards raiſed about three feet from the ground, having each a rug allowed them: and up ſtairs was another large room for men, and one for women.

The chapel, which was below, had a gallery for maſter's ſide debtors; and the felons, and other criminals, were ſeated on forms or benches in the area beneath.

At the top of the whole building are ſpacious leads, where the maſter's ſide debtors were occaſionally allowed to take the air. The keeper, however, or turnkey, was always with them, becauſe the adjacent houſes were thought capable of furniſhing the ready means for eſcape.

Such was this priſon in the year 1803, but the building being in a very dilapidated ſtate, and in many parts ſhoared up with props; it became at length ſo dangerous, not only to the lives of the priſoners, but of other perſons reſorting thither, that in July, 1804, an act paſſed, (with an expedition ſuited to the ſuppoſed preſſure of the occaſion,) for the removal of "all the debtors and priſoners here in cuſtody, to "the Gilt-Spur-ſtreet Compter, or to ſuch other ſafe, ſecure, "and convenient place within the city, as ſhould be approved "of by the lord mayor, aldermen, and commons thereof, "in common council aſſembled." It was alſo ordained to "be lawful for the ſheriffs, from time to time, and until the "Poultry Compter ſhall have been rebuilt, or made ſecure, "and fit and commodious for the reception of priſoners, "or another compter ſhall be provided, to receive, keep, and "detain them in ſuch place of intended removal." This took place in conſequence without delay, and priſoners continued to be received in the Giltſpur-ſtreet Compter, till the 20th of May, 1805; when the very crowded ſtate of that temporary

rary receptacle, occaſioned a neceſſity of ſending all the night charges to their old place of deſtination, in the Poultry.

Nor was this ſtep ſufficient; for in Auguſt, 1806, the Gilt-ſpur-ſtreet Compter, not being found large enough to contain the criminal priſoners of both gaols, they were likewiſe re-conſigned to the Poultry. This ruinous and tottering pile, therefore, (ſo long before deemed hardly tenable,) has thus been made the only place of confinement for the criminals of the two compters; and the chapel of the preſent, being turned into a ſleeping room, for want of ſpace, no divine ſervice is performed there.

The reſult is, that Giltſpur-ſtreet Compter is now wholly appropriated to the confinement of the debtors only belonging to both priſons, until a new Poultry Compter ſhall be provided, or the old one rendered "*ſafe*," for it can hardly be "*fit*," and commodious for the reception of priſoners.

The two rooms already mentioned, as fronting the public-houſe, the one ſet apart for debtors, the other for felons, are ſhut up; and the Queen's ward, with nearly the whole eaſt end of the priſon, have been taken down to prevent their falling. Maſter's-ſide felons, or thoſe who can pay for beds, ſleep in ſtrong rooms above ſtairs, to which the acceſs is from the keeper's houſe. Common ſide felons have, within the wooden gate, a ſmall court, paved with flag ſtones, and a miſerable room called the Rat-hole, with an iron grated, unglazed window; and two diſmal-cells to ſleep in, upon boards, raiſed about a yard from the floor, with a rug or two each, according to their number, but no ſtraw. One of theſe cells is for four priſoners, and the other for two; above are two other rooms, of a ſimilar deſcription. The chapel, ſince its converſion into a dormitory, has barrack bedſteads laid on the floor.

The women felons are ſhut up in a dreary place below, called the Mouſe-hole; this will hold ſixteen priſoners, and is fitted up in the ſame manner, as the above are for the men. Over it is that which was formerly called the Jews' ward for debtors, but now ſet apart for the ſick.

LUDGATE. This priſon was formerly one of the gates of the city of London, and ſituated on Ludgate-Hill, near the ſpot where the London Coffee-houſe now ſtands. It is at preſent appropriated for the reception of debtors, being freemen of London, clergymen, proctors, attorneys, or ſuch other perſons as the court of lord mayor and aldermen ſhall from time to time think fit to be removed thither. It is believed to have formerly had the privilege of permitting priſon-

ers to go out (with a keeper) for the purpoſe of calling upon their ſeveral creditors, to compromiſe their debts, or otherwiſe obtain their diſcharge; but that cuſtom, whatever might have cauſed its origin, has many years been diſcontinued, and cannot now be traced.

About forty-ſix yearsago, when Old Ludgate, (to which the table of fees, and rules and orders for its government, was adapted,) was pulled down, the priſoners were removed to the London Work-houſe, in Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, a part whereof was fitted up for that purpoſe, and where Ludgate priſoners continued to be received until the year 1794, when they were removed to the preſent priſon of Ludgate, adjoining to, and partly encircled by the Compter in Giltſpur-ſtreet.

Ludgate has one ſmall yard, 25 feet by 10, containing a pump, which ſupplies ſpring-water from a well in the Compter; another affording ſoft water from the river Thames, and a ſhed, under which is a bathing tub.

The yard leads to eight rooms: the hall fitted up with benches and tables, for the general accommodation of all the priſoners, as a ſitting room in the day time, and until they uſually retire to reſt. It is the cuſtom of this gaol for the priſoners to have acceſs to the yard at all times, either by day or night. The hall has one fire-place, which is ſupplied by a ſubſcription from the priſoners of ſix ſhillings at their entrance, and ſevenpence weekly afterwards; and the ſubſiſtence of the priſoners is aided by charitable donations; the ſurplus of which, after payment of certain ſalaries, is divided quarterly among ſuch priſoners as have been in cuſtody for the ſpace of one month, before the ſame became due.

All the priſoners find their own beds and bedding, except one rug yearly, which the city allows to ſuch as need it.

Borough Compter. The Borough Compter, (vulgarly called *the Clink*,) is under the juriſdiction of the bailiff of Southwark, but controulable by the city of London; and extends its influence over five pariſhes.

Debtors have one ſmall court-yard, about 19 feet ſquare. On the ground floor, on the right hand, is the women's day and ſleeping room, 24 feet, by nine feet ſix inches. On the left hand is another, intended for men, forty one feet by ten; but the floor of this room, being only of earth or mud, and unfit to ſleep on, no uſe has been made of it for many years, ſo that the men and women aſſociate promiſcuouſly together in the women's apartments, during the day time.

Above ſtairs are two rooms of the ſame ſize as the former, and theſe, in 1801, were in good repair. All theſe rooms have fire-places, but no coals are allowed, no kettles or ſauce-

pans

pans to cook proviſions, no mops, brooms, or pails, to keep the gaol clean; no bedſteads, bedding, nor even ſtraw to lie upon. Hence the debtors are obliged every night to ſleep in their clothes upon the boards.

All who are arreſted by proceſs, iſſuing out of the Borough-court, are ſent to this priſon; and in the houſe there are two rooms, of about eight feet ſquare, for ſuch as can pay three-pence per night for a bed.

The felons' court yard, is about fourteen feet and a half by eleven feet, and ſeparated from the debtors by a brick wall. Their day apartment, called the Stone-Room, of ſeventeen feet by twelve, has a fire-place, but no coals are allowed. Over this is their ſleeping room, 16 feet by 14, no bedding nor ſtraw. Criminals are confined here only for a night or two, till they are fully committed.

BRIDEWELL. The houſe for the reception, correction, and reform of idle and diſorderly perſons, to which this name is rightly given, is ſituate in the great entrance to London, called Bridge-ſtreet Blackfriars, but it may on the whole be more juſtly termed a hoſpital than a priſon. Not far from the White Friars, near the weſt ſide of Fleet ditch, was a well dedicated to St. Bride, or Bridget; this gave name to the pariſh church, and the palace of Bridewell, which was honoured with the reſidence of ſeveral of our monarchs, even as early as king John. It was formed partly out of the remains of an antient caſtle, the weſtern *Arx Palatina* of the city, which ſtood near the little river Fleet, near to the Thames. In 1087, William the Conqueror gave many of the choiceſt materials toward the rebuilding of St. Paul's cathedral, which had been deſtroyed by fire: and Henry I. gave as many of the ſtones, from the walls of the Caſtle-yard, as ſerved to incloſe and form the gates and precinct of the church. Notwithſtanding this, the dwelling remained, and became the reſidence of ſeveral of our monarchs. It was much neglected till cardinal Wolſey reſided in it, in 1522. To this palace Henry VIII. convened all the abbots, and other heads of religious houſes, Engliſh and foreign, and ſqueezed out of them 100,000*l.* in thoſe days an enormous ſum. From the Ciſtercians, who would not own his ſupremacy, not leſs than 33,000*l.* This arbitrary prince rebuilt the palace in the ſpace of ſix weeks, in a moſt magnificent manner, for the reception of the emperor, Charles V. who viſited England in 1522; after all the expence, the emperor lodged in Black-friars, and his ſuite in the new palace, and a gallery of communication was flung over the ditch, and a paſſage

cut through the city wall into the emperor's apartments. The king often lodged here, particularly in 1529, when the queſtion of his marriage with queen Catherine was agitated at Black-friars. It fell afterward into decay, and was begged by the pious prelate Ridley, from Edward VI. to be converted to ſome charitable purpoſe. That of a houſe of correction was determined on, for vagabonds of each ſex and all denominations: It is alſo the place of confinement for diſobedient and idle apprentices, who are kept ſeparate, in airy cells, and have an allotted taſk to be performed in a certain time. They, the men and the women, are employed in beating hemp, picking oakum, and packing of goods.

Of the regulations and effects of this priſon, the following account was publiſhed ſome years ago, by the Rev. Thomas Bowen, chaplain to the hoſpital, and miniſter of Bridewell precinct. "The governors of Bridewell have not been wanting in attention to thoſe priſoners who come under their proper cognizance. To prevent an immediate return to habits either of pilfering or proſtitution, leave is given to ſuch priſoners as may deſire it, to remain in the hoſpital for a limited time, after the period of the impriſonment is expired; and pecuniary aſſiſtance is afforded to thoſe who appear to deſerve it: during the laſt three years, eight perſons only have availed themſelves of this permiſſion, and fewer than half that number, it is known, have derived any benefit from it. At the end of whatever period they may continue, there will be the ſame difficulty in providing for unhappy proſtitutes, who have no friends: to put them into honeſt families, how low or mean ſoever, is not without danger. While we ſeek to reform the guilty, it is poſſible we may ſpread corruption amongſt the innocent. Thoſe, who being fixed in habits of proſtitution, are conſtantly known in the houſes of correction, ſeem objects of farther legal care and animadverſion; and perhaps the benefit which the police might derive from their ſecluſion for a longer period than the law now permits, would not be inconſiderable, as they are, for the moſt part, aſſociates of the loweſt depredators upon the publick. In the caſe of thoſe priſoners who have been guilty of ſmaller acts of diſhoneſty, there is reaſon to think that much benefit is effected, as very many perſons of this deſcription are never ſeen a ſecond time in the hoſpital. It is alſo probable that good is often done to the faulty apprentices, committed by the chamberlain of London. Each priſoner has a convenient ſolitary cell, he has proper books, and the opportunity of divine ſervice, with prayers appropriate to his ſituation. Vagrants

grants ſent for ſeven days, previous to their being paſſed to their reſpective pariſhes, are a heavy expence to the hoſpital. It is not perhaps generally known or conſidered, that the city of London enjoys the benefit of a houſe of correction from the revenues of the charity; in other places the expence is defrayed by a rate on the country or diſtrict, which is levied upon individuals.

"The following is a ſtatement of the different claſſes of priſoners committed in the year 1797,—

Proſtitutes, the firſt time	55
Ditto, twice or many times	133
Women, for ſmaller acts of diſhoneſty, &c. firſt time	36
Ditto ditto twice or oftener	7
Men, for ſmaller acts of diſhoneſty, &c. firſt time	79
Ditto ditto twice or oftener	16
Apprentices, firſt time	21
Ditto, twice or oftener	6
	353

"I do not give this ſtatement as quite as accurate; there are about thirty others, whom I know not how to claſs, whether among the vagrant or the diſorderly poor. In the above year there were alſo 979 vagrants committed for ſeven days, according to act of parliament, and then paſſed. The total in 1797, was 1377.

"The following is a ſtatement of the number of vagrant and diſorderly poor received into Bridewell Hoſpital, during the ſame ſpace of time, at the diſtance of two hundred years.

In the year 1597, in February, March, and April 710
In————1797, during the ſame months 273."

The front of this building, ſituated on the weſt ſide of Bridge-ſtreet, Blackfriars, has not for many years exhibited any part of the original palace. At preſent there is but one vaſt quadrangle, as the remnants of the old ſtructure which croſſed it north and ſouth, have lately been taken down, in order to be rebuilt. A perfectly plain chapel has been erected on the ruins.

The priſon's front occupies the ſouth-weſt corner, and the hall the greater part of the ſouth ſide. This room is 39 paces in length, and fifteen in breadth, with a handſome chimney-piece at each end, and arcades at the ſides.

The

The cieling is horizontal, and without other ornament than two flowers where the luſtres depend. Facing each other, on the north and ſouth ſides, are bow windows, ornamented with ſemi-domes, brackets, feſtoons, &c. &c. The other windows are arched, and rows of oval apertures are extended above them. There are ſeveral pictures, particularly one of Edward VI. by Hans Holbein.

Bridewell is not only a priſon for the diſſolute, but an hoſpital for the education of the induſtrious youth. Here twenty arts' maſters (as they are ſtyled) conſiſting of decayed tradeſmen, ſuch as ſhoe-makers, taylors, flax-dreſſers, and weavers, have houſes, and receive apprentices, who are inſtructed in theſe ſeveral trades; the maſters receiving the profit of their labours. After the boys have ſerved their time with credit, they are paid ten pounds to begin the world with; and are entitled to the freedom of the city. They are dreſſed in blue, with a white hat. The proceſſion of theſe and the children of Chriſt's Hoſpital, on Eaſter Monday and Tueſday, to St. Bride's church, affords to the humane the moſt pleaſing ſpectacle, as it excites the reflection of the multitudes thus reſcued from want, profligacy, and perdition.

The name of this hoſpital has been appropriated to ſeveral priſons throughout the kingdom deſigned for the reclaiming of the idle and profligate. In the metropolis the name of Bridewell has been given to a priſon in Tothill-fields, Weſtminſter, and to one in Clerkenwell.

TOTHILL FIELDS. Over the gate is this Inſcription:—

"There are ſeveral ſorts of work for the poor of this "pariſh of St. Margaret's Weſtminſter, as alſo the county, "according to law; and for ſuch, as will beg, and live "idle, in this city and liberty of Weſtminſter. Anno "1665."

At the entrance, on the left-hand, is a room, in which are depoſited the bonnets and other articles of clothing, taken from the women priſoners at their coming in.

The room over the gateway is called Newgate-ward, and contains five beds, for the uſe of which each priſoner pays ſixpence a night: two ſleep in a bed. If a priſoner has a bed to himſelf, he pays one ſhilling per night. The turnkey's ſleeping-room adjoins.

On the ſides of the area are four narrow court-yards. The firſt of theſe, for felons, has a day-room, with a fire place; and two rooms, which are free-wards, with barrack-beds, and one or two blankets each, as the weather is mild

or

or ſevere. The doors open into the court-yard, and the iron-grated windows are not glazed.

The ſecond, called the Sick-court, is very ſmall: the door of the men's infirmary opens into it; the room is about twenty feet by eleven, and ſix feet eight inches high, with a fire-place, and two iron-grated windows not glazed; barrack-beds, ſtraw-mattraſs, and two or three blankets each.

The third court is for vagrants, and has a day-room and two ſleeping-rooms on the ground floor; one of which is about twenty-five by twelve, and the other eighteen feet by twelve. Both have barrack-beds, and in the winter, blankets are allowed.

The fourth court is for men debtors, and thoſe who are committed for aſſaults or baſtards. Three ſleeping rooms open into this court, which are *free wards*, with barrack-beds, looſe ſtraw and a blanket each: thoſe who can afford to pay ſixpence a night for a bed, ſleep in the part of the gaol, called the Old Bridewell; in which there are two rooms, with three beds each.

Women debtors have the narrow paſſage which leads to the keeper's houſe to walk in; which being ſeparated from the felons' court by a low paling only, they can at all times converſe with them. They have a ſmall day-room, with a fire-place: thoſe who cannot afford to pay for a bed, ſleep in the ſolitary cells, and a blanket is allowed to each.

For faulty apprentices there are four ſolitary cells on the ground floor, about nine feet ſeven-inches, by ſix feet nine-inches, and ſix feet nine inches high: the upper and lower door-pannels are iron-latticed, and open into a lobby paved with flag-ſtones, about three feet eleven inches wide, which ſeparates them from the other parts of the priſon. Above theſe are four other cells, with iron-grated windows and wooden blinds, to prevent their looking into the courts. A blanket is allowed to each priſoner.

Here is plenty of water at all times, and the whole priſon is waſhed twice a week; mops, brooms, pails, &c. being allowed by the conſiderate magiſtrates.

Women have a comfortable room up ſtairs, with a fire-place and two glazed windows, at the north-eaſt corner, ſet apart for an infirmary; with barrack-beds, ſtraw-mattraſs, and two or three blankets each: and adjoining are two ſleeping-rooms, with glazed windows, and two beds each, at three ſhillings and ſixpence per week.

The chaplain's acceſs to his deſk is from the top of the ſtair-caſe; and he has a full view of the two rooms where

men

men and women aſſemble at divine ſervice. A better chapel is much wanted.

The Old Gate Houſe, Weſtminſter, (a priſon, the property of the dean and chapter,) having being taken down, another priſon is erected in Tothill-fields, joining to the Bridewell, firſt inhabited in 1789. It is now entirely appropriated to the women, and has two ſpacious airy courts, about nineteen yards by fourteen each, and three rooms for dreſſing proviſions, &c. about fifteen feet by ten. To theſe courts there are four *free wards*, near twenty feet ſquare, with barrack-beds; and one blanket each is allowed during the winter. There are ſeveral charitable donations.

House of Correction. This priſon in Cold Bath-fields, is conſtructed on the plan of the late Mr. Howard. It was opened in 1794, and at firſt deſigned only as a kind of Bridewell, but having ſuitable accommodations for various deſcriptions of priſoners, it was applied to their different circumſtances. This priſon is ſurrounded by a wall of moderate height. On entering it, after paſſing the firſt gate, is the governor's houſe on the right, which ſtands in the middle of a large yard; on the left are the work-ſhops, where the priſoners are employed. The viſitor is here reminded of the character of this priſon, which is a houſe of induſtry. Further on is the office in which the buſineſs of the priſon is tranſacted, and a committee room; and the beſt chapel belonging to any priſon in the metropolis. The cells are two hundred and eighteen; each being eight feet three inches long, and ſix feet three inches wide. Six yards, each having two rooms, of the ſize of two cells, where two people are lodged. In the cells the penitentiary priſoners are confined till they have finiſhed their taſks, when they are let into the yards at the back of their cells.

The ſituation and government of this priſon having been miſrepreſented by the factious and malignant, and the opprobrious name of Baſtile having been given to it; for the purpoſe of inflaming the worſt paſſions of the vulgar, a more particular deſcription of it may be allowed. It ſtands on a level with Swinton-ſtreet and Gray's Inn-lane, and not more than ſix feet lower than Meux's brewhouſe in Liquor-pond-ſtreet; ſcarcely lower than Guildford-ſtreet; on a level with the Spa-fields; and as high as the roofs of many houſes in the ſpace between Gray's Inn-lane and Coppice-row; higher than Clerkenwell workhouſe, and the firſt-floors of the houſes at Bagnigge Wells. From Pentonville it appears to be very low, and ſo does the whole of London. The gaoler's

ſalary

ſalary is 400*l.* per annum; but neither fees, nor what is termed *garniſh* is paid. There is a chaplain, whoſe ſalary is 50*l*; for which he reads prayers twice a week and preaches on Sundays. The ſurgeon receives 300*l.* per annum, for his attendance at the priſon and the Houſe of Correction. The priſoners are allowed a pound of bread and a pint of gruel daily, for breakfaſt; and a quart of broth, of beef, with rice, oatmeal, celery, onions, leeks, pepper, and ſalt; and ſix ounces of meat, alternately, for dinner. The bedſteads are of plank; the bed a ticking filled with ſtraw; and the covering a blanket and rug. The county allows a peck of coals, per diem, to each priſoner.

KING'S BENCH PRISON. The office of marſhal of this priſon was formerly hereditary in a private family, by grant from the crown; but in the 27th Geo. II. it was ſuggeſted as improper for a private family to hold ſuch an office; and that it would be the means of more effectually preventing extortion and impoſitions on the priſoners, if the appointment were veſted in the crown, ſubject to removal for neglect of duty, non-reſidence, or improper conduct. A bill therefore paſſed to enable his Majeſty to purchaſe the future appointment of the office of marſhal of the King's Bench priſon, and 10,500*l.* was voted for that purpoſe. By this act the king appoints the officer to hold his office *quamdiu ſe bene geſſerit*. Conſtant reſidence ſeems required, either within the walls or the rules.

The marſhal is to keep the priſon in repair, and pay his ſervants out of the fees and emoluments. The power of continuance and removal is veſted in the chief juſtice, and the other three judges of the court of King's Bench.

By the act 32 George II. the courts were required to meet, and to ſettle a table of fees, &c. to be taken of all priſoners for debt, and the priſoners were protected by that act from the impoſition and extortion of gaolers. The court of King's Bench ſettled a table of fees, to be taken of all priſoners for debt, &c.; and by the ſaid act they are directed to ſend, at certain times in the year, to ſee that this table of fees, as well as a liſt of all bequeſts, are hung up in ſome conſpicuous part of the priſon, and that the ſaid act is in every other reſpect complied with; and that eight days public notice ſhould be given of this viſitation. Any violation of the clauſes in this act ſubjects gaolers and ſervants to a penalty of 50*l.* The limits and boundaries, or as they are commonly called, "Rules" of the priſon, are very extenſive, forming a circle of nearly three miles round the walls of the priſon. The purchaſe of theſe rules, is ſaid to be ſeven guineas

guineas for the firſt hundred pounds every priſoner is charged with, and five pounds for every hundred afterwards; and ſuch ſecurity is given to the marſhal as he approves of; but all taverns, ale-houſes, and places of public amuſement, are excluded.

Day rules are allowed, to the number of three days in every term, unleſs the priſoner can ſhew good cauſe to the court why a greater number of days ſhould be granted him. Thoſe in the rules who have given to the marſhal two ſufficient ſecurities, pay for the firſt day-rule 4*s.* 2*d.* and 3*s.* 10*d.* for every other day. The expence attending an application for a greater number is about a guinea and a half. Thoſe who are within the walls, and are too poor to purchaſe the rules, and unable, from the general deſertion of their friends, to find ſecurity, cannot obtain this indulgence of the day rules without paying a judge's tipſtaff 10*s.* 6*d.* to attend him, and a further ſum of 16*s.* 8*d.* to induce the tipſtaff to become ſecurity to the marſhal in caſe of an eſcape. As the tipſtaffs give to the marſhal ſecurity to the amount of 500*l.* only, thoſe who are charged with demands or debts for more than that ſum can have no indulgence of this kind.

The priſon is ſituated at the top of Blackman-ſtreet, in the borough of Southwark. The entrance to it from St. George's Fields, is by a handſome court yard, where there are three good houſes. The largeſt of them is the proper reſidence of the marſhal; one for the clerk of the papers, with his office on the ground-floor; and the third is generally let to perſons of rank and fortune, who are committed by the court for challenges, libels or other miſdemeanors. From this court-yard the aſcent is by a few ſtone-ſteps into a lobby, which has a good room on the right-hand, and over it ſeveral good apartments, which, it is ſaid, uſually let at five guineas a week; alſo two rooms, called ſtrong rooms, to ſecure thoſe who have attempted to eſcape. Theſe ſtrong rooms are about twelve feet by eight: one of them has a flagged floor, and is occaſionally uſed as a coal-hole; the other has a boarded floor. No fire-place in either; no caſements, or ſhutters, to keep out the weather.

From the lobby is a deſcent by a few ſtone-ſteps, into a ſmall ſquare yard, where there is a pair of great gates and a ſmall door, with a lodge for the turnkeys, and a room over it, generally let at one guinea a week. On the right hand of this gate, on entering the inner part of the priſon, there is a brick building, called the "State Houſe," containing eight large handſome rooms, let at two and ſixpence each per week to thoſe who have intereſt to procure one. Oppoſite

to the ſtate houſe is the tap-room, where from twelve to twenty-four butts of beer are drawn weekly. In this tap-room is a bar; and on one ſide is a very neat ſmall parlour, belonging to the perſon who keeps the tap. On the other is a room on a larger ſcale, called the wine-room, where priſoners and their friends occaſionally reſort. The reſidence of the priſoners is in a large brick building, about one hundred and twenty yards long, with a wing at each end, and a neat uniform chapel in the centre. There is a ſpace of ground in front of the building of about forty yards, including a parade of about three yards, paved with broad flag-ſtones. In the ſpace between the building and the wall are three pumps, well ſupplied with ſpring and river water; alſo another pump, at the ſide of the further wing, with a ſpring of very fine water. Part of the ground next the wall is appropriated for playing at rackets and fives; and there are alſo, in different parts, devices and contrivances for other amuſements.

The building is divided into ſixteen ſtaircaſes, with ſtone-ſteps and iron-railings. The whole number of rooms, including the eight ſtate rooms, is two hundred and twenty-four; the ſize of them in general, is fifteen to ſixteen feet by twelve or thirteen feet: ſome few are on a little larger ſcale. In each room is a ſtrong iron range, and on each ſide a receſs, either for a bed or a cupboard. All the rooms that were deſtroyed by the fire, ſome years ago, are now arched with brick, to prevent in future any fire from extending beyond a ſingle room. In the paſſage from the entrance to the back of the building is a coffee-houſe,* where there was formerly an ordinary every day, at two ſhillings per head, with a pint of porter included. The marſhal, is ſaid to receive an annual rent of 105*l.* from the perſon who keeps it.

Beyond the coffee-room is a bakehouſe, which pays alſo a rent of thirty-ſix guineas per annum. And on the oppoſite ſide of the way is the public kitchen, where the priſoners may have their meat roaſted and boiled gratis, before one o'clock. After that time the cook charges twopence or threepence for each joint, according to its ſize. Between the coffee-houſe and the public kitchen, there are generally two or three butcher's ſtalls, a green market, and perſons ſelling fiſh: and in the further wing is a large tap-room, called the *Brace*, from its having once been kept by two brothers, whoſe

* Here a priſoner may be accommodated with a bed by the night or week (as he can agree) till he gets chummage, or a room.

name

name was *Partridge.* Over this tap-room is another room of the ſame ſize, occupied by a priſoner, where the newspapers may be read, and tea, coffee, &c. may be had; but the man having been detected in ſelling ſpirituous liquors, the marſhal turned him out, and gave the room to another priſoner. The lower rooms on the parade are, many of them, converted into chandler's-ſhops, kept by priſoners.

The management and government of this priſon are in the hands of a marſhal, who has under him a deputy marſhal, a clerk of the papers, ſeveral clerks, three turnkeys, and their aſſiſtants. As the marſhal, deputy marſhal, and clerk of the papers, can ſeldom come into the priſon, every complaint muſt be made by letter, or by a perſonal application at the office of the clerk of the papers. If it relates to any quarrel or diſturbance, it is generally ſettled in a ſummary way. The marſhal is a magiſtrate, and alſo armed with a rule of court, authorizing him to commit any perſon to the new gaol, for riotous or diſorderly conduct; one month for the firſt offence, and three months for a ſecond. But the priſoner may appeal either to the court, or to a judge out of term.

No ſpirituous liquors are allowed to be ſold within the the priſon; and by a rule of court, no women or children ought to ſtay in the priſon after ten o'clock. At half-paſt nine, therefore, a man goes round with a bell, and at certain places calls out, "Strangers, women, and children, out!" The number of priſoners before the act of Inſolvency of 1797 was upward of 600; about 200 of whom were excluded by the limitations of the ſum, and time. After the act of 1801, about 150 were left in priſon; many of thoſe who had been a great number of years confined were excluded from the benefit on account of the limitation of the ſum; and others, who were not within the term ſpecified by the act. Not more than three or four were remanded under the act, for fraud, &c. March 10, 1802, the numbers within the walls were 315, and 57 within the rules: January 13, 1804, within the walls and rules, 520.

When a debtor is firſt committed to this priſon, he is entitled to what is called a *chummage*, as ſoon as he has paid his fees. This chummage is a ticket given him by the clerk of the papers, to go to ſuch a room; and whether it be to a whole room, the half, or third of a room, muſt entirely depend upon the number of priſoners within the walls. But, as it is more convenient for perſons, when they firſt come to this priſon, to hire a bed for a week or two, there are always a great number of diſtreſſed perſons willing to hire out their beds, on being paid two or three ſhillings per night.

Others,

Others, who are diſtreſſed, let their right to half a room, at five ſhillings per week, and ſleep in the tap-room on the benches, in hammocks or on mattreſſes. The clerk of the papers has the entire management and diſpoſition of the rooms. He is aſſiſted by the eldeſt turnkey, who goes round every Monday morning, and receives the weekly rent of one ſhilling.

The poor ſide of the priſon conſiſts of ſixteen rooms, at the back of the building. The number of inhabitants ſeldom exceeds thirty. They are governed by a ſet of rules of court, made in 1729, and are entitled to their ſhare of all charities, bequeſts, gifts, and donations; a liſt of which ought to be put up in ſome conſpicuous part of the priſon. Every perſon, as ſoon as he is admitted on this charity, muſt alſo take his turn to hold the begging box at the door; which prevents many, who have lived in reſpectable ſituations, from applying for relief in this way.

In this priſon are confined, not debtors alone, but perſons convicted of offences on proſecutions in the court of King's Bench. Its regulations at this day, are upon the moſt correct principles of juſtice and humanity. Formerly, there exiſted within the walls a moſt corrupt and tyrannical ſelf-conſtituted court, which exerciſed a deſpotic juriſdiction over the perſons and property of the priſoners; but on a complaint to the court at Weſtminſter in 1779, this mock tribunal was ſuppreſſed, and the pſeudo-chief-juſtice, one Phillips, was removed to the new priſon in the Borough.

Fleet Priſon. The Fleet priſon ſituated on the eaſt ſide of Fleet-market, is a place of confinement of great antiquity, it having been mentioned in the reign of Richard I., which was from 1189 to 1199. The name was then *Priſona de la Fleet*. It is now a priſon for debtors, and for perſons charged with contempt of the courts of Chancery, Exchequer, and Common Pleas.

In 1728, many abuſes practiſed by the warden were the ſubject of parliamentary enquiry; and Mr. Oglethorpe, from the committee appointed to enquire into the ſtate of the gaols, made ſeveral reports of many grievous abuſes practiſed in the Fleet, Maſhalſea, and King's Bench; in conſequence of which many uſeful regulations were enacted.

In the front is a narrow court-yard. At each end of the building is a ſmall projection or wing. There are four floors, called galleries; beſide the cellar-floor, called Bartholomew fair. Each gallery conſiſts of a paſſage in the middle, the whole length of the priſon, ſixty-ſix yards; and of rooms on each ſide of it, about fourteen feet and a half by twelve and a

half, and nine feet and a half high. Each room has a chimney and window, except three called ſlip rooms, which are without a chimney. The paſſages are narrow (not ſeven feet wide) and dark, having only one window at each end.

On the firſt floor, the hall gallery, to which the aſcent is by eight ſteps, are a tap-room, a room called the cellar-head, another for one of the turnkeys, and nineteen rooms for the priſoners; at the north end of which is the chapel.

The cellar-floor is ſixteen ſteps below the hall-gallery. It conſiſts of the public kitchen, four large beer and wine cellars, ſixteen rooms for priſoners, and one for another of the turnkeys.

In the coffee-room gallery (the next above the hall) are the coffee-room, made out of two; the ſtrong-room, for refractory priſoners, and twenty-two more for thoſe of other deſcriptions.

In the third gallery, above the coffee-room, are twenty-ſix others, and a room at the north end. Over the chapel is an infirmary.

In the top-gallery are twenty-ſeven rooms; ſome of which, being over the chapel, are larger than the reſt.

All the rooms already mentioned are for maſter's-ſide debtors, at the weekly rent of one ſhilling and threepence, unfurniſhed. They fall to the priſoners in ſucceſſion, (except thoſe called Bartholomew fair, which are in the entire diſpoſal of the warden,) that is, when a room becomes vacant, the firſt priſoner upon the liſt of ſuch as have paid their commitment fees ſucceeds to it. When the priſon was built, the warden gave each priſoner his choice of a room, according to his ſeniority.

If all the rooms are occupied, a new comer, on payment of his commitment fees, is *chummed* (as they term it) on the next room in rotation, beginning at No. 1. in the hall-gallery.

The apartments for common ſide debtors are only part of the right-wing of the priſon. Beſide the cellar, (which was intended for the kitchen, but is now occupied with lumber, and ſhut up,) there are four floors. On each floor is a room near twenty feet ſquare, with a fire-place; and on the ſides ſeven cloſets, or cabins, to ſleep in. Such of the priſoners as ſwear in court, or before a commiſſioner, that they are not worth five pounds, and cannot ſubſiſt without charity, partake of the caſual donations which are ſent to the priſon and the begging box placed at the grate.

Here

Here is plenty of water, both from the river and pumps; and a ſpacious yard behind the priſon, where the priſoners play at fives, and other games.

MARSHALSEA. Of the court of Marſhalſea an account has already been given (Vol. II. p. 450.)

To this priſon of the court of the marſhalſea, and of the King's Palace-court of Weſtminſter, are brought debtors, ſued within twelve miles of the palace, except in the city of London.

The priſon is held, under leaſe, by Mr. Cracklow, a ſurveyor. One-half of it is already fallen down in ruins; and of the remainder it may be almoſt ſaid, with our poet, that

"The caſtle topples o'er the Warder's head."

The court-yard is ſpacious, and contains nearly fifty rooms, ſix of which only are for common-ſide debtors. There are two or three rooms for women; but as there is only one court-yard, men and women mix together in the day-time. No infirmary. There is a tap in the priſon which was let at forty ſhillings per week. The court is well ſupplied with water. The priſoners ſometimes employ themſelves in cutting pegs for the brewers, and are paid two ſhillings the thouſand.

If more debtors are on the common ſide than ſix rooms will contain, at three in a room, other rooms are allowed on the maſter's ſide. No pirates have been committed to this priſon ſince the year 1789; but ſeveral perſons have been, and ſtill are, committed in execution, under ſentence of courts-martial, to ſuffer impriſonment for a limited time: they are committed by the Lords of the Admiralty, purſuant to the ſentence. Of this deſcription have been found from four to eight within the laſt ſeven years. The whole building is in a moſt ruinous and inſecure ſtate; and the habitations of the debtors are wretched in the extreme.

WHITE CHAPEL. This is a priſon of the baron court, for the liberties and manors of Stepney and Hackney, and is private property. It conſiſts of four rooms fronting the high road, two on each ſtory, of about fifteen feet by thirteen, and eight feet high. Every debtor who ſleeps in any of theſe rooms, pays to the keeper for the uſe of a bed, one ſhilling the firſt night, and ſixpence per night afterwards. The court-yard is forty feet by twenty, in which is the men's day-room, of twelve feet by ten. From the court is an aſcent by a wooden ſtair-caſe to a gallery; in which are two

ſleeping rooms, and the women's day-room, of equal ſize with that below. Theſe latter are free wards.

In this priſon are confined thoſe whoſe debts are above two pounds, and not exceeding five pounds; and by the ſtatute 21 Geo. III. the term of impriſonment is fixed for a time, not exceeding one week for every pound of the total debt and coſts. The court is held every Thurſday; and a regular general court once in ſix weeks.

SURRY COUNTY GAOL. This noble building does honour to the county of Surry. It is ſituate in an open and airy part of Horſemonger-lane, in the borough of Southwark. The boundary wall incloſes about three acres of ground. The ſeſſion's-houſe adjoins it, to which there is a communication from the priſon, and a houſekeeper appointed to keep it clean, with a ſalary, and apartments for her uſe.

The gaol, which is likewiſe the county Bridewell, was firſt inhabited the 3d of Auguſt, 1798, and has in front the turnkey's lodge; on the ground-floor of which is a day-room; another room with a cold bath; and a third is a waſh-houſe, with an oven, &c. Over theſe are four rooms, eighteen feet by fifteen, for the turnkeys to ſleep in; and at the top of all is a ſpacious lead-flat, where criminals are executed. After paſſing through the lodge, an avenue paved with Yorkſhire ſtone, leads on to the keeper's houſe, which is in the centre of the priſon, and from which the ſeveral court yards are inſpected.

For maſter's-ſide debtors there is a court-yard, paved with flag-ſtones, 75 feet by 30, incloſed by handſome iron-paliſades, ſo that a thorough air is admitted: and arcades, paved in the ſame manner, 31 feet by 26, under which to walk in wet weather. Cloſe to theſe is a day-room, 27 feet by 20, with a fire-place; and they have likewiſe ſixteen ſleeping rooms, each fourteen feet ſix inches by nine feet three, with an iron-grated and glazed window.

Common ſide debtors have alſo a court-yard with arcades, a day-room, and twelve ſleeping-rooms, the ſame as thoſe on the maſter's ſide: but they ſleep in hammocks, and find their own bedding.

Women debtors have a court, about twenty feet ſquare; a day-room, eighteen feet ſquare, and four ſleeping rooms, of the ſame ſize as the men's; to which they alſo find their own bedding, and pay nothing.

Pumps are fixed in all the courts: Thames water is laid on; and at the top of the four corners of the gaol is a reſervoir, each containing about eight hundred gallons of water,

ſupplied from a well by a forcing pump. There are four ſpacious, airy rooms, each twenty-five feet by ſixteen, ſet apart as infirmaries, fitted up with flock-beds, blankets, pillows, and rugs; and adjoining to them are court-yards, thirty feet ſquare, for convaleſcents to walk in. Alſo two rooms for the nurſes; another for the ſurgeon; and a fourth with a warm bath.

The chapel is a very neat building, where priſoners are ſeated in their different claſſes; and all are required to attend divine ſervice who receive the county allowance.

The lobbies are well ventilated, ſix feet three inches wide. Rules and orders excellent. The magiſtrates viſit in rotation, and enter their remarks in a book. The act for preſervation of health, and the clauſes againſt ſpirituous liquors, are conſpicuouſly hung up. The whole priſon is remarkably clean.

Another matter connected with the police of the metropolis is the mode of preventing the extent of conflagration; and in the ſame view may be conſidered the various eſtabliſhments for ſupply of water, both for extinguiſhing fire, and for domeſtic ſupply.

Building Act. From the time of the great fire which made ſuch dreadful ravages in London in 1666, the attention of the legiſlature was directed to the eſtabliſhment of ſuch regulations in the erection of dwelling-houſes and other buildings, as might prevent the recurrence of ſo dreadful a calamity. An act for this purpoſe was paſſed in the 19th Charles II.; and ſubſequent ſtatutes were enacted under ſucceeding monarchs, until their general regulations, with ſuch additions as experience ſuggeſted, were compriſed in one of the 14th Geo. III. c. 78. This act divides buildings into ſeven diſtinct claſſes or rates, and directs that to each building ſhall be appropriated party-walls, of proper thickneſs; and that the timbers ſhall be ſo placed as to prevent the extent of conflagration. The proviſions are exceedingly judicious, but too minute and technical to be copied or abridged in this work; the act ought, however, to be attentively conſidered by all inhabitants of the metropolis, as it contains many regulations of great importance to their convenience and well being, and extends to many other objects beſides fire.

Engines. Of the offices already eſtabliſhed for the indemnity of thoſe who ſuffer by fire, ſome account has been given in this volume, p. 371. By the ſpirited emulation of the perſons directing theſe undertakings, a nightly patrole is provided, which goes through the ſtreets of the metropolis during the night; and on the appearance of fire, immediate

alarm is given at ſome of the ſtations, where engines are placed at the expence of the inſurance offices to pour water where neceſſary. Beſides the aid thus afforded, the ſtatute laſt referred to, makes it incumbent on churchwardens to provide one or more engines in every pariſh, to be in readineſs on the ſhorteſt notice, to extinguiſh fires; and alſo ladders to favour eſcapes; and, that every facility might be afforded with regard to water, it is alſo incumbent on the churchwardens to fix ſtop-blocks and fire-plugs at convenient diſtances, upon all the main pipes within the pariſh; and to place a mark in the ſtreet where they are to be found, and to have an inſtrument or key ready to open ſuch fire-plugs, ſo that the water may be acceſſible on the ſhorteſt poſſible notice. That every thing alſo may be done to inſure diſpatch, the perſon bringing the firſt pariſh engine to any fire is entitled to thirty ſhillings, the ſecond to twenty ſhillings, and the third to ten ſhillings, paid by the pariſh, excepting in caſes where chimnies are on fire; and then the expence ultimately falls upon the perſon inhabiting the houſe or place where it originated. This excellent ſtatute, alſo obliges all beadles and conſtables, on the breaking out of any fire, to repair immediately to the ſpot, with their long ſtaves, and to protect the ſufferers from the depredation of thieves; and to aſſiſt in removing effects, and in extinguiſhing the flames; and in recent times the exertions of the peace officers have been materially aided by the volunteers, and ſometimes by the regular military.

Water. The regular and copious ſupply of water to the metropolis is one of the moſt excellent effects of modern juriſprudence, and the ſpirit of commercial enterprize. This great improvement in the convenience, and invaluable addition to the health and ſecurity of the metropolis, firſt became an object of legiſlative attention in 1605; when, the ſuburbs of London daily increaſing, and conſequently the danger of fire and ſcarcity of water, notwithſtanding the many ſprings brought in leaden pipes into the city, as well as the many wells with pumps almoſt every where dug within the city and ſuburbs, an act of parliament was obtained 3 James I. c. 18., for bringing a freſh ſtream of running water to the north parts of London from the ſprings of Chadwell and Amwell, &c. in the county of Hertford; giving power to the lord mayor and corporation of London, to lay out ſuch convenient ground for making the trench for the ſaid new river; not to exceed ten feet in breadth, leaving the inheritance in the owners thereof, who were to allow a free paſſage through their grounds to and from the new

cut at all times, with carts, horſes, &c. for making and repairing the ſame; for which ſatisfaction was to be made to the owners of the lands, and of the mills ſtanding on the ſtreams from which water ſhould be taken, to be valued by commiſſioners, as therein directed. The lord mayor, &c. were to make and keep up convenient bridges over the new cut, at fit places, for the uſe of the king's ſubjects, as well as the proprietors of the lands on each ſide. In the year following another act of parliament (4 James I. c. 12.) paſſed; purporting, 'that ſince paſſing the former act, upon 'view of the grounds through which the waters were to paſs, 'by men of ſkill, it was thought more convenient, and leſs 'damage to the ground, that the water ſhould be conveyed 'through a trunk or vault of brick or ſtone incloſed, and in 'ſome places, where need was, raiſed by arches, than in an 'open trench or ſewer.' Power therefore was veſted in the lord mayor of London, &c. for that effect. But this expenſive propoſal, and alſo another act of parliament (7 James I. c. 9.) granting to the king's newly erected divinity college at Chelſea, power to bring water in pipes from the river Lea, for ſupplying London therewith for their benefit, came to nothing.

London Bridge Water Works. Before the legiſlature had made any proviſion for ſupplying the metropolis with water, private projectors had made ſome, though not conſiderable progreſs, in the work. The heads of the great monaſteries in and near London had formed eſtabliſhments for conveying water by pipes to their own convents and their immediate vicinity; but a more extenſive and uſeful ſpeculation was that of the works on London Bridge, formed by Peter Morice, or Corbis, a Dutchman, in 1582. This work, afterward improved by Britiſh engineers, and particularly by Mr. Serocold and Mr. Hadley, was at firſt made to force the water no higher than Gracechurch-ſtreet. Morice obtained from the city a leaſe for five hundred years, at the yearly rent of ten ſhillings, for the uſe of the Thames water, and one arch and a place for fixing his mill upon. The citizens, ſoon experiencing the benefit of this invention, granted him a like leaſe two years after for another arch. By theſe means he grew very wealthy, and the premiſes continued in his family, under various improvements, until the year 1701; when the property was ſold to one Richard Soams, citizen, and goldſmith; the heir of Morice having firſt, at the purchaſer's requeſt, obtained another leaſe of the fourth arch, for the further improvement of the ſaid works, after ſelling the whole property thereof for thirty-

ſix thouſand pounds. Mr. Soams, to prevent all diſputes with the citizens, then applied to the city for a confirmation of his bargain with Morice, and obtained a freſh leaſe from them for the term unexpired of Morice's leaſe, at the yearly rent of twenty ſhillings, and three hundred pounds fine. Afterward he divided the whole property into three hundred ſhares, at five hundred pounds each ſhare, and made it a company. The wheels placed under the arches, are moved by the common ſtream of the tide-water of the river Thames, and it raiſes water to the height of one hundred and twenty feet.

New River. It was in conſequence of the legiſlative proviſion, made in the reign of James I. that Sir Hugh Middleton planned and completed the New River, already deſcribed at p. 327 of this volume.

Hampstead Water Company. In 1630, a project was ſet on foot for conveying certain ſprings of water into London and Weſtminſter, from within a mile and a half of Hodſdon, in Hertfordſhire, by the undertakers, Sir Edward Stradling, and John Lyde, the projector being one Michael Parker; for defraying the expence whereof, king Charles granted them a ſpecial licence to erect and publiſh a lottery or lotteries; according (ſays the record) to the courſe of other lotteries heretofore uſed or practiſed. And for the ſole privilege of bringing the ſaid waters in aqueducts to London, they were to pay 4000*l.* per annum, into the king's exchequer; and the better to enable them to make the ſaid large annual payment, the king granted them leave to bring their aqueducts through any of his parks, chaſes, lands, &c. and to dig up the ſame gratis. Of this project no trace now remains, unleſs it gave riſe to the Hampſtead Water Company, who from certain ponds in Hampſtead and Highgate, ſupply water to a portion of the metropolis, and ſome adjacent pariſhes.

York Buildings Water Works. Soon after the reſtoration, Sir John Bucknall and others were proprietors of water-works at York buildings, for raiſing that neceſſary fluid from the Thames, granted them by patent of Charles II. The water was originally raiſed by the exertions of horſes, and probably in the manner of the chain pump. Each houſe, thus ſupplied, paid upon an average 25*s.* per annum. Their edifice was once burnt and rebuilt, and they were incorporated in 1691. The proprietors offered them for ſale in 1718, and deſcribed themſelves as a corporation with the inheritance of their ground, on which their works were ſituated, that had ciſterns and pipes laid to tenants, producing an income of 16,000*l. per annum.* A ſteam engine was firſt

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uſed at York-buildings, for raiſing water, in April, 1726, which conſumed two chaldrons of coals in 24 hours, and raiſed 50 tons of water per hour. This was afterward given up as too expenſive, and the company, after the two rebellions, made an extenſive ſpeculation in the purchaſe of forfeited eſtates: they ſtill ſupply water to their immediate neighbourhood.

CHELSEA WATER WORKS. In 1722, the vaſt increaſe of buildings in the great weſtern ſuburbs of London requiring a greater ſupply of freſh water than the preſent works could furniſh, an act of parliament, of the eighth year of Geo. I. for better ſupplying the city and liberties of Weſtminſter, and parts adjacent, with water, authorized the Chelſea water company, newly erected, to dig baſons, reſervoirs, &c. for bringing water from the river Thames, to a place near Chelſea, and to convey the ſame (by an ingenious engine,) to another reſervoir in Hyde-park, whence it is conveyed in pipes to ſeveral ſtreets and houſes; and the crown was empowered to incorporate the undertakers. A canal was then dug from the Thames, near Ranelagh, to Pimlico, where there is a ſteam engine for the purpoſe of raiſing the water into pipes, which convey it in various directions to the village of Chelſea, to Weſtminſter, and various parts of the weſt end of the town. The proprietors of the works have an office in Abingdon-ſtreet, Weſtminſter, where all buſineſs relating to the rent of the water is tranſacted. In a calculation of the quantity of water ſupplied daily by the waterworks in the neighbourhood of London, anno 1767; thoſe at Chelſea, are ſaid to yield 1740 tons.

OTHER COMPANIES. Beſide theſe, there are two other companies, which have recently commenced the diſtribution of water; the *Eaſt London Water Works*, eſtabliſhed by ſtatutes of the 47th and 48th years of Geo. III. and by the latter act empowered to purchaſe the *Shadwell* and *Weſt-Ham Water Works*; and the *Weſt Middleſex Company*, eſtabliſhed alſo about the ſame period.

PLACES OF AMUSEMENT. The places of public entertainment in a large and wealthy metropolis, are of conſiderable importance to the commmonwealth, as they not only ſhew to the world at large, the degree in which the nation is refined or depraved, but as they are objects of great intereſt to government, which is bound to watch over them with care, and to impoſe ſuch reſtraints as may prevent them from becoming public nuiſances, and yet not to deprive the people of their reaſonable and neceſſary recreations. Of thoſe moſt patronized

tronized in and about London it is intended to ſubjoin ſome account.

THE THEATRES. So natural to the human mind is the deſire to commemorate the acts of illuſtrious men, and even of divinities by mimic repreſentation, that almoſt every country, in its ſtruggles to eſcape from barbariſm, formed ſome ſcheme of theatrical repreſentation, in which heroic and comic actions were exhibited ſeparately or blended together. In England ſome ſpecies of dramatic performances appear to have been a part of the popular delights from a very early period; ſome were religious, ſome moral, ſome ſatirical, and ſome extremely coarſe and ruſtic; until, at length a peculiar and national ſtyle was formed, not fettered by the rules of the ancient or foreign drama; nor equal to it in dignity, but far ſurpaſſing whatever has been produced by any other nation in diſcrimination and variety of character, and in irreſiſtible appeals to all the paſſions and feelings of man. In its zenith, the true, native drama of England was unrivalled in theſe properties; an exceſs of refinement in more recent times has deprived it of ſome of its higheſt qualities; but ſtill, whatever may have been ſacrificed to a regularity of little value, the modern productions of Engliſh dramatiſts, may vie with thoſe of any other country, and challenge a compariſon in point of ſenſe, ſentiment, wit, and variety.

It is not intended to enter into a progreſſive hiſtory of the ſtage; but the reſtraints which the legiſlature has wiſely impoſed on its licentiouſneſs, and the facts connected with them are of ſufficient intereſt to demand attention, and are derived from Mr. Coxe's Memoirs of Sir Robert Walpole. It is needleſs, the author obſerves, to diſcuſs the queſtion concerning the neceſſity of fixing ſome bounds to the licentiouſneſs of the ſtage. The neceſſity muſt be allowed, except by thoſe who think it fitting to ſubject to public mockery, law, government, and religion; and to expoſe magiſtrates, judges, and kings, to the perſonalities of ſatire, buffoonery, and low mimicry. In all well regulated governments, the fact has been univerſally admitted, and wherever it has not been adopted, the moſt fatal conſequences have followed.

Even the freeſt democracy which perhaps ever exiſted, that of Athens, after having experienced the effects of unreſtrained licentiouſneſs in their theatrical performances, found it neceſſary to remedy the evil, and to limit the ſtage within the boundaries of common decency and juſtice.

It appears from the hiſtory of the Engliſh ſtage, that no period ever exiſted when it was not ſubject to ſuperintendence;

dence; when players were not licenſed, and when plays were not reviewed and amended, allowed, or rejected. Before the reign of Henry VIII. the power of ſuperintending the king's hunting parties, the direction of the comedians, muſicians, and other royal ſervants, appointed either for uſe, or recreation, was excluſively veſted in the Lord Chamberlain.

Under him, and ſubject to his controul, was an inferior officer, who exerted himſelf on particular occaſions for the purpoſe of regulating pageants, public feſtivals, and maſquerades. This man was called by the fanciful names of the *Abbot of Miſrule*, or *Lord of Paſtimes*. But in the reign of Henry VIII. this temporary office was rendered regular and permanent by letters patent, and called the office of *Maſter of the Revels*.

Under Elizabeth, ſome wiſe regulations, with the advice of Walſingham, and co-operation of Burleigh, were made for allowing the uſe, but correcting the abuſe of the ſtage; particularly, when the Earl of Leiceſter obtained the firſt general licence for his theatrical ſervants to act ſtage-plays in any part of England, a proviſo was added in the patent, enjoining that *all comedies, tragedies, interludes and ſtage-plays, ſhould be examined and allowed by the maſter of the Revels*. Thus that authority, which was before confined to the paſtimes of the court, was now extended to the theatrical exhibitions of the whole kingdom.

During her reign alſo, the privy council exerciſed an authority, legiſlative and executive, over the dramatic world. They opened and ſhut playhouſes; gave and recalled licences; appointed the proper ſeaſons when plays ought to be preſented or withheld; and regulated the conduct of the lord mayor of London, and the vice-chancellors of Oxford and Cambridge, with regard to plays and players. The privy council gave Tilney, the maſter of the revels in 1589, two coadjutors, a ſtateſman, and a divine, to aſſiſt him in reforming comedies and tragedies.

Theſe prudent regulations, and the wiſdom with which they were exerciſed, were attended with the moſt beneficial effects. The maſter of the revels, by regulating the ſtage, and reſtraining the number of theatres, gave greater reſpectability to the profeſſion of a player; and the genius of the drama expanded and ſoared to a greater height, although its limits were contracted and its flight circumſcribed.

Had not theſe wiſe regulations taken place, Shakeſpeare might have confined to burleſque farces, and low buffoonery, thoſe

thoſe vaſt powers of invention and deſcription which his own language can alone adequately delineate.

> "The poet's eye, in a fine frenzy rolling,
> Glances from heav'n to earth, from earth to heav'n,
> And as imagination bodies forth
> The forms of things unknown, the poet's pen
> Turns them to ſhape, and gives to airy nothing
> A local habitation and a name."

By the wiſe and temperate uſe which the maſter of the revels made of his power, his weight and influence increaſed, and he gradually appropriated to himſelf the greater part of that authority, which had belonged to the lord chamberlain. During the latter part of the reign of James I. and Charles I. it was held by Sir Henry Herbert, nearly allied to the earl of Pembroke, lord chamberlain, under whoſe prudent management the reputation and conſequence of the office increaſed, and produced the moſt ſalutary effects, until his functions were wholly ſuſpended by the troubles and confuſion of the civil wars, and the fanaticiſm of the republicans.

On the reſtoration of Charles II. the maſter of the revels endeavoured to re-aſſume his former authority, but met with inſuperable oppoſition from the proprietors and managers of the king's and duke's companies, one of whom had obtained a freſh licence to act plays, the other a renewal of a former grant. In vain the maſter of the revels applied to the courts of juſtice for redreſs; in vain he appealed to the ſovereign, or to the lord chamberlain; he was neither ſupported by the one, or countenanced by the other; his authority, though not overthrown, was conſiderably ſhaken, and his regulations were combated and deſpiſed.

During this ſuſpenſion of his power, the particular differences, pretenſions, or complaints, were generally ſettled by the perſonal interference of the king and duke, or referred to the deciſion of the lord chamberlain. In conſequence of this relaxation of authority, and the libertine character of the court, the theatre was diſgraced by the groſſeſt ribaldry and obſcenity, and the beſt authors vied who ſhould produce the moſt licentious comedies. Ladies could not venture to attend a new play without maſks, then daily worn, and admitted into the pit, the ſide-boxes, and the gallery.

On the death of Sir Henry Herbert, the maſterſhip of the revels was conferred on Charles Killegrew, manager of the king's company. The union of theſe two functions increaſed

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the evil, and the ſmalleſt check was not impoſed on the glaring immorality of the ſtage.

At the revolution, the power of the lord chamberlain was revived without reſtriction. He opened and ſhut play-houſes, impriſoned and licenſed players, corrected and rejected plays. Under him the maſter of the revels ſeems to have recovered ſome part of his former power, and to have had his ſhare in the revolutions of the theatre. He reviſed and ſanctioned plays, and his aid greatly contributed to the celebrated conqueſt which Jeremy Collier, by the publication of his ſhort view of the ſtage, obtained over the immorality of the drama. In this publication, the moſt profane and obſcene paſſages in ſeveral modern plays, which had been written by Dryden, Vanbrugh, Wycherley, Congreve, and the moſt admired dramatic authors, were detected and expoſed. The truth of his obſervations, which all the wit and talents of the authors who were deſervedly chaſtiſed could not controvert, produced a ſurpriſing effect; a general outcry was raiſed againſt the licentiouſneſs of the ſtage, and king William ſent the following order to the play-houſes: "His majeſty being informed, that notwithſtanding an order made in June 1697, by the earl of Sunderland, then lord chamberlain of the king's houſehold, to prevent the profaneneſs and immorality of the ſtage, ſeveral plays have lately been acted, containing ſeveral expreſſions contrary to religion and good manners: And whereas the maſter of the revels hath repreſented, that, in contempt of the ſaid order, the actors did neglect to leave out ſuch profane and indecent expreſſions, as he had thought proper to be omitted: therefore, it is his majeſty's pleaſure, that they ſhall not hereafter preſume to act any thing in any play, contrary to religion and good manners, as they ſhall anſwer at their utmoſt peril." At the ſame time, the maſter of the revels was commanded not to licenſe any plays containing irreligious or immoral expreſſions, and to give notice to the lord chamberlain, or in his abſence to the vice-chamberlain, if the players preſumed to act any thing which he had ſtruck out.

But this reformation did not continue long in its full force. As ſoon as the firſt awe and panic of the actors had ſubſided, the ſtage nearly relapſed into its former immorality, all attempts to reform it became the object of theatrical wit, and were ridiculed in plays, prologues and epilogues. Although the new plays were uſually more decent and moral, yet the old plays were frequently acted, without being freed from their exceptionable paſſages.

Either in conſequence of theſe proceedings, or of ſome diſputes,

putes which aroſe between the actors of the royal theatres, and produced the deſertion of the principal performers from Drury Lane to the Haymarket, the nuiſance of play-houſes, and the conduct of the performers, became ſo flagrant, that a bill, in the twelfth year of queen Anne, included players, who acted without a legal ſettlement in the places where they performed, among vagrants, and ſubjected them to the ſame penalties as rogues and vagabonds. But before the beneficial effects of this act could have time to operate, the death of the queen produced a new revolution in the drama.

Soon after the acceſſion of George I. the power of the maſter of the revels, which had been conſiderably circumſcribed, was almoſt annihilated; a new patent was injudiciouſly granted to Sir Richard Steele, Colley Cibber and Booth, for acting plays without ſubjecting them to the licence or reviſion of any officer.

In conſequence of this grant, the maſter of the revels was abridged of his power, and defrauded of his dues, and his emoluments were reduced to a ſmall ſalary from the exchequer, to lodgings in Somerſet-Houſe, and to occaſional fees.

At the death of Charles Killigrew, the office, thus mutilated, was conferred on Charles Henry Lee, and the decline of his power was ſufficiently ſhewn by the growing licentiouſneſs of the ſtage, and the numerous pieces which offended equally againſt religion, decency and common ſenſe.

Although, in all the letters patent for acting plays ſince the time of Charles I. no mention was made of the lord chamberlain, yet he was ſtill conſidered as poſſeſſing an abſolute, though an undefinable authority over the ſtage, which he had occaſionally exerciſed. The performance of ſeveral theatrical pieces had been prevented, particularly Lucius Junius Brutus, a prologue of Dryden to the Propheteſs, Mary queen of Scotland, and recently Polly, the ſequel to the Beggar's Opera.

But as this exerciſe of his power had been always attended with much unpopularity, it was ſeldom exerted. Numerous theatres were erected in various parts of the metropolis, in which the actors performed without licence or authority. To prevent this, ſeveral attempts were made to enforce the laws then exiſting. An actor, who performed on the theatre of the Haymarket without licence, was taken from the ſtage, by the warrant of a juſtice of peace, and committed to Bridewell, as coming under the penalty of the vagrant act. The legality of the commitment was diſputed; a trial enſued; it was decided, that the comedian being a houſekeeper, and having

having a vote for electing members of parliament; did not come within the deſcription of the ſaid act; and he was diſcharged amidſt the loud acclamations of the populace. The iſſue of this trial gave full ſcope to the licentiouſneſs of the ſtage, and took away all hopes of reſtraining the number of play-houſes.

From this repreſentation of the ſtate of the drama, it is evident that ſome reformation was indiſpenſable. The miniſter himſelf had long ſeen that neceſſity. The obloquy which purſued him was not confined to the preſs; the ſtage was made the vehicle of the moſt malignant ſarcaſms, not expreſſed in the elevated tone of tragedy, or couched in ſentiments and language perceptible only to men of refined underſtandings; but his perſon was brought on the ſtage, his actions maligned, his meaſures miſrepreſented and arraigned, and his conduct made the ſport of the populace, in all the petulance of vulgar farce. He was unwilling, however, to make this a perſonal conſideration, but rather a public and national queſtion, in which the good of the law, conſtitution, religion, and morality, was intimately involved; and ſuch an opportunity ſeemed to preſent itſelf, when Sir John Barnard brought in a bill "to reſtrain the number of houſes for playing of interludes, and for the better regulating of common players of interludes."

On his repreſenting the miſchiefs which theatres had done to the city of London, by corrupting youth, encouraging vice and debauchery, and greatly prejudicing trade, the propoſal was at firſt received with contempt and ridicule, until it was ſeconded by Sandys, Pulteney, and warmly ſupported by the miniſter himſelf. It was obſerved by a member, in the courſe of the debate, that there were at that time not leſs than ſix theatres in London. The houſe being fully convinced of the neceſſity of the bill, leave was given to bring it in without a ſingle diſſenting voice. It was accordingly on the 3d of April preſented, read the firſt time, and ordered to be printed, notwithſtanding petitions againſt it from the proprietor of the theatre in Goodman's-fields, and from the maſter and comptroller of the revels. It was read a ſecond time on the 14th of April.

The miniſter conceived this to be a favourable opportunity of checking the daring abuſe of theatrical repreſentation, which had arrived to a moſt extravagant height. It was propoſed to inſert a clauſe, to ratify and confirm, if not enlarge the power of the lord chamberlain, in licenſing plays, and at the ſame time inſinuating to the houſe, that unleſs this addition was made, the king would not paſs it. But Sir John Barnard

Barnard ſtrongly objected to this clauſe. He declared that the power of the lord chamberlain was already too great, and had been often wantonly exerciſed, particularly in the prohibition of Polly. He ſhould therefore withdraw this bill, and wait for another opportunity of introducing it, rather than eſtabliſh by law a power in a ſingle officer, ſo much under the direction of the crown, a power which might be exerciſed in an arbitrary manner, and conſequently attended with miſchievous effects.

The attempt of Sir John Barnard having thus failed, the immorality of the drama increaſed, and the moſt indecent, ſeditious, and blaſphemous pieces were performed, and reſorted to with incredible eagerneſs. Among thoſe who principally ſupported this low ribaldry, was the celebrated Henry Fielding, who, though he never ſhone in the higher line of perfect comedy, wrote in theſe dramatic ſatires in a ſtyle agreeable to the populace. One of his pieces, called Paſquin, which was acted in the theatre at the Haymarket, ridiculed in the groſſeſt terms, the three profeſſions of divinity, law and phyſic, and gave general offence to perſons of morality. "Religion, laws, government, prieſts, judges and miniſters," obſerves Colley Cibber, "were laid flat at the feet of the herculean ſatiriſt, this drawcanſir in wit, who ſpared neither friend nor foe, who to make his poetical fame immortal, like another Eroſtrates, ſet fire to his ſtage, by writing up to an act of parliament to demoliſh it."

This piece was peculiarly offenſive to the miniſter, becauſe it contained many perſonal alluſions and invectives. But as he was not willing to employ the power of government in a mere temporary prohibition of this and other performances, which would have been extremely unpopular, and not attended with permanent effects, he wiſhed to avail himſelf of the preſent flagrant abuſe, to prevent future repreſentations ſo diſgraceful and indecorous.

In the courſe of the ſeſſion, an opportunity offered, which he did not omit to ſeize. Giffard, the manager of Goodman's fields theatre, brought to him a farce, called the Golden Rump, which had been propoſed for exhibition; but it is uncertain whether the intentions of the manager were to requeſt his advice on this occaſion, or to extort a ſum of money to prevent its repreſentation.

The miniſter, however, paid the profits which might have accrued from the performance, and detained the copy. He then made extracts of the moſt exceptionable paſſages, abounding in profaneneſs, ſedition, and blaſphemy, and ſubmitted them to ſeveral members of both parties, who were ſhocked at the extreme licentiouſneſs of the piece, and promiſed their

ſupport

ſupport to remedy the evil. With their advice, concurrence, and promiſe of co-operation, he read the ſeveral extracts to the Houſe, and a general conviction prevailed, of the neceſſity of putting a check to the repreſentations of ſuch horrid effuſions of treaſon and blaſphemy. He acted, however, with his uſual prudence on this occaſion: he did not bring forward, as is generally ſuppoſed, an act for ſubjecting all plays to the licence of the lord chamberlain, and reſtraining the number of playhouſes, but contrived to introduce it by amending the vagrant act.

The bill was called, "A Bill to explain and amend ſo much of an act, made in the twelfth year of the reign of Queen Anne, intituled, An act for reducing the laws relating to rogues, vagabonds, ſturdy beggars, and vagrants, and ſending them whither they ought to be ſent, as relates to the common players of interludes." Leave was accordingly given to bring it in, and Pelham, Dodington, Howe, the maſter of the rolls, the attorney and ſolicitor-general, were ordered to prepare it. During its rapid progreſs through the Houſe, certain amendments were made, and two clauſes were added. The firſt, which occaſioned ſo much obloquy, empowered the lord chamberlain to prohibit the repreſentation of any theatrical performances, and compelled all perſons to ſend copies of any new plays, parts added to old plays, prologues and epilogues, fourteen days before they were acted, and not to perform them, under forfeiture of 50l., and of the licence of the houſe, if any ſuch exiſted, in which the play was acted. The ſecond, which is ſaid to have been added at the inſtigation of Sir John Barnard, operated in reſtraining the number of playhouſes, by enjoining, that no perſon ſhould be authoriſed to act, except within the liberties of the city of Weſtminſter, and where the king ſhould reſide.

The principal enactments are as follow: 1. Every perſon who ſhall for hire, gain, or reward, act, repreſent, or perform, or cauſe to be acted, repreſented, or performed, any interlude, tragedy, comedy, opera, play, farce, or other entertainment of the ſtage, or any part or parts therein, in caſe ſuch perſon ſhall not have any legal ſettlement in the place where the ſame ſhall be acted, repreſented, or performed, without authority, by virtue of letters patent from his majeſty, his heirs, ſucceſſors, or predeceſſors, or without licence from the lord chamberlain of his majeſty's houſehold for the time being, ſhall be deemed a rogue and a vagabond, within the intent and meaning of the ſaid recited act, and ſhall be liable and ſubject to all ſuch penalties and

puniſhments, and by ſuch methods of conviction, as are inflicted on, or appointed by the ſaid act for the puniſhment of rogues and vagabonds who ſhall be found wandering, &c.

2. Any perſon having or not having any legal ſettlement, who ſhall without ſuch authority or licence, act, &c. for hire, &c. any interlude, &c. every ſuch perſon ſhall, for every ſuch offence, forfeit the ſum of fifty pounds, &c.

3. No perſon ſhall for hire, &c. act, &c. &c. any new interlude, &c. or any part or parts therein, or any new act, ſcene, or other part added to any old interlude, &c. or any new prologue or epilogue, unleſs a true copy thereof be ſent to the lord chamberlain of the king's houſehold, &c. fourteen days at leaſt before the acting, &c. together with an account of the playhouſe or other place where the ſame ſhall be, &c. the time wherein the ſame ſhall be firſt acted, &c. ſigned by the maſter or manager, or one, &c. of ſuch playhouſe, &c.

It ſhall be lawful for the ſaid lord chamberlain, as often as he ſhall think fit, to prohibit the acting, &c. any interlude, &c. or any act, &c. &c. thereof, or any prologue or epilogue; and in caſe any ſuch perſons ſhall for hire, &c. act any, &c. &c. before a copy ſhall be ſent as aforeſaid, or ſhall for hire, &c. &c. contrary to ſuch prohibition, every perſon ſo offending ſhall, for every ſuch offence, forfeit the ſum of fifty pounds; and every grant, &c. (in caſe there be any ſuch) under which the ſaid maſter, &c. ſet up or continued ſuch playhouſe, &c. ſhall ceaſe.

4. That no perſon or perſons ſhall be authoriſed by virtue of, &c. from his majeſty, &c. or the lord chamberlain, to act, &c. any interlude, &c. in any part of Great Britain, except in the city of Weſtminſter, and within the liberties thereof, and in ſuch places where his majeſty, &c. ſhall reſide, and during ſuch reſidence only.

5. If any interlude, &c. ſhall be acted, &c. in any houſe or place, where wine or other liquors ſhall be ſold, the ſame ſhall be deemed to be acted, &c. for gain, &c.

Drury-lane. This theatre originated on the Reſtoration. The king made a grant of a patent for acting in what was then called the *Cock-pit*, and the *Phœnix*. The actors were the king's ſervants, were on the eſtabliſhment, and ten of them were called Gentlemen of the Great Chamber, and had ten yards of ſcarlet cloth allowed them, with a ſuitable quantity of lace. A new theatre, built on the ſite of the old one, and on much additional ground, was opened in 1794. Its dimenſions were thus deſcribed at the time. It contains

contains in the pit 800 perſons; whole range of boxes, 1828; two ſhilling gallery, 675; one ſhilling gallery, 308; total 3611; amounting to 826l. 6s. There are eight private boxes on each ſide of the pit; 29 all round the firſt tier, and 11 back-front boxes; 29 all round the ſecond tier, of which 11 are ſix ſeats deep; 10 on each ſide the gallery, third tier; boxes in the alcove, 9 each ſide. Diameter of the pit 55 feet; opening of the curtain 38 feet wide; height of the curtain 38 feet; height of the houſe from pit floor to the ceiling 56 feet 6 inches. The ſtage is an hundred and five feet in length, ſeventy-five feet wide, and forty-five feet between the ſtage doors. To facilitate the working ſome ſcenery, and light machinery, there is a ſtage about ten feet below the upper one. Under this ſecond ſtage is a depth of about forty feet, furniſhed with various mechanical engines, requiſite for raiſing large and ſplendid ſcenery. Under the pit is a large range of lofty vaults, and immediately over it a ſpacious ſtore-room, and one for painting ſcenery, about ſeventy feet wide and fifty-three feet long: above the galleries is another painting-room, about ſeventy-five feet by forty. There are two green-rooms, one for the uſe of chorus ſingers, ſupernumeraries, and figurants; the other for the principal performers; the latter of theſe apartments is elegantly fitted up. The interior of this threatre reſembles the ſhape of a horſe-ſhoe, and the ſpectator is forcibly ſtruck with the grandeur of deſign, elegant execution, and ſplendid effect of this ſuperb edifice. The prevailing colours of the boxes are blue and white, relieved with richly fancied embelliſhments of decorative ornament. The compartments in which the front of each tier is divided, has centrally a highly finiſhed cameo, with exquiſitely drawn figures raiſed in white, the ſubjects chiefly from Ovid; the ſtage-boxes project about two feet, and have a rich ſilver lattice-work, of excellent taſte and workmanſhip. The boxes are ſupported by caſt iron candalabras, fluted and ſilver lackered, reſting on elegantly executed feet. From the top of each pillar a branch projects three feet, from which is ſuſpended a brilliant cut-glaſs chandelier; a circular mirror of five feet diameter is placed on each ſide the dreſs boxes next the ſtage, that produces a pleaſing reflected view of the audience. On the nights when this theatre is honoured with their majeſties' preſence, the partitions of the ſtage-box are taken down, and it is brought forward nearly two feet, a canopy is erected, ſuperbly decorated with crimſon velvet, richly embroidered with gold, and adjoining them ſit the princeſſes. Their box is uſually lined with

light blue ſattin, fancifully feſtooned and elegantly decorated with ſilver fringe and rich taſſels. At the back of the front boxes is a ſemi-circular ſaloon, forty-one feet long, containing, at a proper elevation, a handſome ſtatue of Garrick, between the tragic and comic muſe. In this place proper perſons attend with refreſhments. Over this is a ſmaller one for the ſame purpoſe, and above that an immenſe ciſtern containing water, which, in caſe of fire, may be immediately conveyed to any part of the houſe.

The preceding deſcription had been written before the 24th February 1809. On the night of that day, the inutility of the precautions againſt conflagration were fatally and rapidly demonſtrated. A fire was diſcovered to have broken out a little before midnight, and in a very ſhort time this ſplendid and elegant edifice was reduced to a heap of ruins. Until a new erection ſhall diminiſh the regret juſtly felt for the loſs of the old, the above memorial of what it was will retain ſome intereſt with the reader.

COVENT GARDEN THEATRE. This theatre was burnt down on the night of the 20th of September 1808. The company removed their performances for a time to the Opera Houſe, and ſubſequently to the Little Theatre in the Hay Market; but ſuch were the ſpirit and vigour diſplayed in projecting and deviſing means for the re-eſtabliſhment of the play-houſe in its old ſituation, and ſuch the promptitude and liberality with which the public came forward at the call of the proprietors, that the town ſaw with aſtoniſhment at the cloſe of only eleven months from the fire, and in leſs than nine months from the laying the foundation ſtone, a new theatre opened on the 18th of September 1809, more ſpacious, ſubſtantial, and elegant than any ſtructure of the kind ever ſeen in England.

In this conſummate effort of architecture, Mr. Robert Smirke, to whom the preparation and conducting of the building were confided, ſtudied no leſs to produce a ſtructure which ſhould form a claſſical ornament to the metropolis, and do honour to the age, than to afford to the audience the means of the higheſt gratifications which an ample, beautiful, and well-contrived theatre can ſupply.

The edifice itſelf is a correct model of Grecian architecture, adapted to the dramatic improvements and purpoſes of the preſent time. The order is Doric, taken from that of the Temple of Minerva, at Athens; and there are baſſo-relievos explaining the purpoſes of the building, the illuſtrious fathers of dramatic poetry, both Grecian and Engliſh, being repreſented with attributes characteriſtic of the ſtate

and intention of the ancient and modern dramas. The deſign of theſe baſſo-relievos was made by Mr. Flaxman, and they were executed by Mr. Roſſi.

Statues repreſenting tragedy and comedy are placed in niches at each end of the front. Tragedy, which occupies the niche in the ſouthern extremity of the building, or that neareſt to Ruſſel-ſtreet, is a fine figure, holding the tragic maſk and dagger. The ſculptor is Mr. Roſſi. Comedy holds the ſhepherd's crook or *pedum*, on her right ſhoulder, and the comic maſk in her left hand. This ſtatue, which is the workmanſhip of Mr. Flaxman, is placed in the niche at the northern extremity of the building next to Long Acre. The figure of Comedy is founded upon the ſevere taſte of antiquity; and, as its object is, to correct as well as to pleaſe, it is marked by dignified tranquillity, more than by the laughing graces which might be ſuppoſed to characterize farce, rather than legitimate comedy. Tragedy is in a ſolemn grave attitude, and "looks commercing with the ſkies," give an impreſſive majeſty to her appearance.

Entrances to the Theatre. The principal entrance to the boxes is at the portico in Bow-ſtreet. The hall is forty feet ſquare and built of ſtone. It communicates with a flight of ſtone ſtairs ſeventeen feet wide, having a gallery ſeparated on each ſide by a range of Ionick columns of porphyry. The walls are in imitation of light veined marble.

The approach to the corridors from this ſtaircaſe is through an anti-room, in the centre of which ſtands a large ſtatue of Shakſpeare. The walls of this room are decorated with pilaſters of porphyry correſponding with the columns on the ſtaircaſe.

Another entrance to the boxes is in Prince's Place, from the piazza in Covent Garden; a double flight of ſtone ſtairs leads from it to the corridors on the weſt ſide of the houſe.

The principal entrance to the annual boxes is from Prince's Place. The hall is of ſtone, and the aſcent to the boxes is by a great ſemi-circular ſtaircaſe of ſtone. There is another entrance on the eaſt ſide of the houſe, in the arcade north of the great portico.

The entrances to the pit are from the piazza in Covent Garden and Bow-ſtreet into the Bedford avenue, from which five doors open into the veſtibule. There is alſo an entrance to the pit in the arcade, ſouth of the great portico, and leading to the ſaid veſtibule.

The entrances to the lower gallery are at the eaſtern and weſtern extremity of the Bedford avenue. The en-

trance to the upper gallery is at the eaſtern extremity of the ſame.

Interior of the Theatre. The pit is very ſpacious, and the benches are raiſed gradually, to a convenient elevation for view of the ſtage; they are covered with light blue cloth bordered with red. There are three tier of boxes, each forming a ſemicircle, fifty feet in diameter, having the ſides prolonged nearly in a parallel direction towards the ſtage. The fronts of the boxes are white, with a Greek ornament, continuous through their whole length, in gold upon a light pink ground, and enriched with relieved gold ſtars, and mouldings; they are ſupported by ſlender fluted and gilt columns.

A range of arches ſupports the ceiling, which is formed into a circle, and painted in concentrick compartments.

The firſt and ſecond tier of boxes are appropriated to the public, and have three ſeats in each, covered with light blue cloth.

The upper tier conſiſts of annual boxes, twenty-ſix in number, with a ſmall ſeparate anti-room to each. The acceſs to theſe boxes is already deſcribed, and they are not connected with any other part of the houſe. A ſpacious ſaloon is alſo attached to them; it is fitted up with ſofas extending on each ſide, between pedeſtals, upon which ſtatues are placed. The walls are of cream colour with gold. The buſts of the three great poets, Homer, Virgil, and Milton are placed in niches, with paintings in baſſo relievo from their works. There are columns and pilaſters of green Syrian marble at each end of the room *.

There is alſo a ſaloon, or coffee-room, at the back of the lower tier of boxes. It is ſixty feet long and twenty feet wide, furniſhed with ſofas in receſſes on each ſide; on the walls are paintings in baſſo relievo from the plays of Shakſpeare. The prevailing colours of this room, and the corridores, are green and white.

The upper-gallery is divided into five compartments, and may be thus conſidered a tier of five boxes, with a communicating lobby at the back of them. One ſide of this lobby is the exterior wall of the theatre, with the windows into the ſtreet. The lobby to the gallery beneath is ſimi-

* This arrangement for the accommodation of the higher claſs of ſociety, to the excluſion of the other portion of the audience, was, in part, the occaſion of a conteſt of unexampled warmth and duration, to terminate which, the managers were forced to throw open to the town all the boxes which they had thus intended to reſerve, except ſix.

larly ſituated. One great advantage attends this conſtruction: in ſummer the doors of the galleries and the windows of the lobbies being left open, the audience in thoſe parts cannot be oppreſſed by heat, as in the former theatre.

The proſcenium of the ſtage is a large arch, enriched with pannels and gilt ornaments, and ſupported by pilaſters in imitation of Sienna marble; it is ſurmounted with the royal arms. A ſcarlet curtain is ſuſpended from the arch, ornamented with a black and gold Grecian border. In the centre of a gold wreath is inſcribed the motto of the ſtage, "Veluti in ſpeculum."

The houſe is lighted by elegant glaſs chandeliers on a peculiar conſtruction. They are forty in number; of which four are ſuſpended over the ſtage, compoſed of the moſt brilliant cut-drops, in *or molu* mountings, each holding nine candles. The other thirty-ſix luſtres, of ſimilar conſtruction and materials, holding each from five to ſeven candles, are diſtributed equally between the three tiers of boxes; two hundred and ſeventy wax candles are conſumed in them every night; two hundred and fifty patent lamps are fixed in the corridores and ſtaircaſes, and nearly as many more are employed each night to light the ſtage and ſcenery.

The artiſt has been alſo attentive to the comfort and accommodation of the performers. The gentlemen's dreſſing rooms are on one ſide, and thoſe of the ladies on the other. There are three green rooms. The wardrobes are ſpacious, and rooms are attached to them for the various artizans employed in the buſineſs of the theatre.

The ſtage is well adapted for the diſplay of ſcenery, and its convenient diſtribution, having a depth in the rear greatly exceeding that of the late theatre, and is provided with arched receſſes on each ſide in which the ſcenes are depoſited. The ſcenes are twenty-two feet high, and ſpace is provided to enable theſe to deſcend at once under the ſtage, or to be raiſed above it.

In the conſtruction of this ſplendid edifice, the calamitous fate of the late two great winter theatres has not been forgotten. Every means of ſafety againſt fire, or other accident, that ingenuity could deviſe, has been adopted. The corridores are all paved with ſtone, laid upon brick arches, and the ſtair caſes are of ſtone. At convenient intervals are ſtrong party walls, with iron doors, by which, if a fire were to break out, it would be confined within that particular compartment, and be prevented from ſpreading through the houſe. The fire places are alſo made with the grates turned upon a pivot, by which means the front can

be turned round to the back; and the fire is thus extinguiſhed without the poſſibility of accident. Fire pipes filled with water from four reſervoirs, upon the top of the building, are alſo introduced into every part of the houſe, through which they are ſpread like veins through the human body.

From a thouſand to fifteen hundred workmen were daily employed upon the conſtruction of this building. The excavation for the foundations was begun at the latter end of November 1808, and the foundation ſtone was laid by His Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales, on the 31ſt of December. The building was completed on the 18th of September 1809.

Hay Market Theatre. This houſe was erected in 1720, by a private projector, to be let out occaſionally for profit to performers of various deſcriptions. After the paſſing of the act for licenſing theatrical performances, it was licenſed for the exhibition of regular dramas from the 14th of May till the 14th of September in every year. The profits of this ſhort ſeaſon have, however, of late years been much curtailed by the practice the winter managers have adopted, of keeping open their houſes till the middle or nearly the end of July. The houſe is neatly fitted up, and ſuppoſed, when full, to contain a ſufficient audience to pay into the treaſury nearly 400*l.*

The Opera House. In addition to thoſe theatres where regular Engliſh dramas are exhibited, the progreſs of refined taſte, and the increaſing paſſion of the public for exquiſite muſic and elegant dancing, recommended the building of a houſe for the performance of operas in the Italian language, with dances. The requiſite funds for carrying it on were ſupplied by an ample ſubſcription of perſons of quality and faſhion, who alſo formed committees for managing the concern. It was never proſperous; freſh ſubſcriptions were repeatedly made and exhauſted, and, at length, the property has fallen into the hands of private undertakers, who conduct it with no better ſucceſs than their dignified predeceſſors. The old building is generally ſaid to have been conſtructed by Sir John Vanburgh, though Mr. Pennant attributes it to Sir Chriſtopher Wren; it was much altered by Mr. Adam, and deſtroyed by fire in 1790. It was ſpeedily rebuilt on an improved plan, and is now, for its purpoſe, a moſt grand and beautiful theatre. The fronts of the boxes are painted in compartments, a blue ground with broad gold frames. The ſeveral tiers are diſtinguiſhed from each other by a difference in the ornaments

in the centre of the compartments. In the ſecond tier theſe ornaments conſiſt of Neptunes, nereids, tritons, mermaids, dolphins, ſea-horſes, &c. &c. On the third tier the ornaments exhibit feſtoons and wreaths of flowers, ſuſtained by cherubs; leopards, lions, griffins, &c. are the ſupporters of the fourth. The fronts of the fifth tier nearly correſpond with thoſe of the third. The dome preſents a ſky, in which the flame colour predominates. The *coup d'œil* of the whole is rich and magnificent, and conſiderably ſurpaſſing its former appearance. The ſtage is ſixty feet in length from the wall to the orcheſtra, eighty feet in breadth from wall to wall, and forty-ſix feet acroſs from box to box. From the orcheſtra to the centre of the front boxes the pit is ſixty-ſix feet in length, and ſixty-five in breadth, and contains twenty-one benches, beſides paſſage room of about three feet wide, which goes round the ſeats, and down the centre of the pit to the orcheſtra. The pit will hold eight hundred perſons; price of admiſſion half-a-guinea. In altitude, the internal part of the houſe is fifty-five feet from the floor of the pit to the dome. There are five tiers of boxes, and each box is about ſeven feet in depth, and four feet in breadth, and is ſo conſtructed as to hold ſix perſons with eaſe, all of whom command a full view of the ſtage. Each box has its curtains to encloſe it, according to the faſhion of the Neapolitan theatres, and is furniſhed with ſix chairs. The boxes hold near nine hundred perſons. They are private property, or let out for the ſeaſon to perſons of rank and faſhion, who pay very large prices for them according to their ſituation. The gallery is forty-two feet in depth, ſixty-two in breadth, and contains ſeventeen benches, and holds eight hundred perſons; price of admiſſion five ſhillings. The lobbies are about twenty feet ſquare, where women attend to accommodate the company with coffee, tea, and fruit. The great concert room is ninety-five feet long, forty-ſix feet broad, and thirty-five feet high, and is fitted up in the firſt ſtyle of elegance. The opera uſually opens for the ſeaſon in November, and continues its repreſentations on the Tueſday and Saturday of every week, till June or July. Perſons may walk from the pit or boxes behind the ſcenes during the performance.

Beſide theſe, which may be juſtly termed regular theatres, there are ſome of inferior deſcription, at which entertainments of muſic, ſinging, and dancing are exhibited by virtue of a licence under the ſtatute 25 Geo. II. c. ..

SADLER'S WELLS. The oldeſt of theſe places of amuſement is Sadler's Wells, of the origin and progreſs of which Mr.

Mr. Malcolm has given a deſcription, containing the following particulars.

Although there is nothing in the exterior of the theatre at Sadler's Wells worth deſcribing, further than it is a ſtrong brick building, fronted by a handſome houſe, its vicinity to the New River, and the number of trees ſurrounding it, give the place a decided ſuperiority over every other theatre near London.

Without doubt the ſprings, afterwards known by the appellation of Sadler's Wells, were thoſe of the priory of St. John of Jeruſalem. An anonymous author has aſſerted, that the prieſts of St. John were accuſtomed to attend at them, and ſerve the water to perſons afflicted with various diſorders; at the ſame time addreſſing certain prayers to Heaven for their efficacy. Although no reaſon can be aſſigned why ſuch ceremonies ſhould not have been uſed at theſe ſprings, it is probable they have been miſtaken by him for the real Holywell. However, his aſſertion that they were entirely concealed from the public, by order of government, after the Reformation, to prevent ſuperſtitious perſons from frequenting them, ſeems to be corroborated by Mr. Sadler's accidental diſcovery of them, when digging gravel on his grounds, for mending the highways, of which he was a ſurveyor. As the water was found to be ferruginous, though not ſo much impregnated with iron as thoſe of Tunbridge Wells in Kent, they were immediately recommended as uſeful in removing obſtructions in the ſyſtem, and purifying the blood.

A petition from the proprietor to the Houſe of Commons, many years paſt, ſtates, that the ſite was a place of public entertainment in the reign of Queen Elizabeth. If this aſſertion is correct, but no proof is adduced, Sadler was far from being the firſt poſſeſſor for muſical purpoſes and drinking.

Sadler's Wells was incloſed within a wall of conſiderable extent, with ſeveral fine trees within it. A gate faced the New River, on which was inſcribed *Sadler's Wells*, under a pediment. The houſe contained ſeven windows in front, on the firſt floor, with angular mullions; and probably the ſame number below. Francis Forcer owned the Wells in 1735: by which period the proprietor appears to have been doubtful whether he ſhould be permitted to proceed with his exhibitions, as he thought it neceſſary to petition the parliament for a licence. In it he repreſented the place as having been uſed for muſic, rope-dancing, ground-dancing, a ſhort pantomime, and the ſale of liquor, for forty years before,

before, which ſhews the above entertainments to have commenced in 1695. His application was rejected.

Sir John Hawkins obſerves of the elder Forcer, that he was a compoſer and muſician, and author of ſeveral ſongs publiſhed in the year 1685, 6, and 7. This man and his ſon held the Wells many years. The latter is ſaid to have been remarkably handſome, tall, and athletic. Sir John adds, that the muſic performed at this and ſome other places at that period, hardly deſerved the name of a concert, as the inſtruments were generally confined to violins, hautboys, and trumpets, conſequently in uniſon; or, if a baſs inſtrument was introduced, it was only for the ground baſs to diviſions in old ballad or country dance tunes. Till within theſe few years, the pit tickets informed the ſpectator, that an additional ſixpence, to the two ſhillings, the price of admiſſion, would entitle them to a pint of wine or punch. The pit was at that time filled with high-backed ſeats, upon each of which was a little ſhelf, for the ſupport of bottles, and wine glaſſes broken off in the midſt were put into the mouth of the bottle; but the proprietors have lately, much to their honour, voluntarily removed thoſe benches, and made the pit the receptacle of perſons full as reſpectable as thoſe who frequent that portion of the eſtabliſhed theatres. The preſent building was erected in 1765.

Astley's Amphitheatre. This, and ſome ſimilar places of amuſement, had their origin in the long eſtabliſhed taſte of this nation for thoſe exhibitions which diſplay the fleetneſs, ſagacity, and docility of the horſe. Attitudes on horſeback, and the ingenuity of taught, or, as they are commonly termed, learned, horſes, are recorded among the popular amuſements from a very early period; and were a conſtant exhibitions at fairs and other meetings where numbers were collected, whoſe curioſity might be rendered profitable. About the year 1768, Mr. Aſtley was one of the moſt celebrated performers in this way; he and a rival equeſtrian were uſed to parade the ſtreets in adverſe diſplay, and in the afternoon exhibit their feats at large to an audience collected within an incloſure, and accommodated with ſeats, but open to the ſky. The ſpot choſen by Mr. Aſtley was on the Surrey ſide of Weſtminſter Bridge; by degrees he gained the aſcendancy over his opponent, improved his entertainment by adding to his horſemanſhip fantoccini, ombres chinoiſes, artificial fire-works, muſic, ſinging, rope-dancing, interludes, and pantomimes. The theatre was covered, and aſſumed beauty, regularity, and even ſplendour. The projector, uniting with an enthuſiaſtic love of the profeſſion to which he devoted himſelf a great portion of enter-

prize

prize and a perſevering ſpirit, has continued his exhibitions with annual improvements, although his premiſes have more than once been deſtroyed by fire, and has extended his exertions to other theatres on a ſimilar plan, beſides occaſionally viſiting Ireland, and even France and Flanders. His efforts have been much aided by his ſon, who was long celebrated for his agility and grace on horſeback.

THE ROYAL CIRCUS. The competitor of Mr. Aſtley in his early feats was named Hughes, and he, after ſuſtaining a long courſe of misfortune, was, about the year 1781, ſufficiently patronized to eſtabliſh in St. George's fields a theatre for exerciſes ſimilar to thoſe at Mr. Aſtley's; but his houſe was, at firſt, far more beautiful, and for ſome time more faſhionably attended. Since the opening it has been frequently unſucceſsful, and was once deſtroyed by fire, but rebuilt. Mr. Hughes, whoſe affairs were always embarraſſed, died ſome years ago; but the theatre has aſſumed a more regular character under Mr. Elliſton, who has baniſhed equeſtrian exhibitions, and carries on a diſplay of burlettas with ſpirit and ſucceſs.

The three laſt-mentioned places of amuſement, always open on Eaſter Monday; and they, as well as thoſe which follow, are licenſed purſuant to the ſtatute, in order to enable them to give muſical entertainments.

OLYMPIC PAVILION. This is a ſmall, ſubſidiary theatre, erected by Mr. Aſtley in Wych-ſtreet, near Drury-lane, and appropriated to exhibitions ſimilar to thoſe at the Amphitheatre.

ROYALTY THEATRE. This building was erected as a regular theatre for dramatic exhibitions, by John Palmer, a celebrated comedian, and opened in 1787. Only one play was performed, which was Shakſpeare's As you like It, for the benefit of the London Hoſpital. The further exhibition of regular dramas was prevented by the magiſtrates, at the intervention of the managers of the eſtabliſhed theatres. Diſappointed in his principal hope, Mr. Palmer, with the aſſiſtance of an excellent company, carried on the undertaking for two years with exhibitions of muſic and pantomime; but his expences greatly exceeding the revenue of the theatre, he was obliged to abandon it, and it fell into the hands of various undertakers, ſome of whom ſtill keep it open during a great portion of the year. It is ſituated near Well-cloſe-ſquare in the liberty of the Tower Hamlets, a circumſtance which led Mr. Palmer inconſiderately to flatter himſelf that he could play there by means of a licence from the governor of the Tower; but in this he was grievouſly deceived.

VAUXHALL

VAUXHALL GARDENS. This elegant and cheering place of ſummer reſort is ſituated near the Thames, in the pariſh of Lambeth, in the county of Surrey, about a mile and a half from Weſtminſter bridge. It is denominated from the manor of Vaux-hall, or Faukeſhall; but the tradition that this houſe, or any other adjacent, was the property of the popiſh conſpirator Guy Fawkes, is entirely fictitious. The premiſes now generally called Vauxhall, formerly Spring Gardens Vauxhall, were in 1615 the property of Jane Vaux, widow; the manſion-houſe upon the eſtate was then called Stocden's. Jane Vaux left two daughters, one of whom was wife of Barlow, biſhop of Lincoln. The moieties of the eſtate, which was divided between them, paſſed through various hands till the middle of the laſt century. Jonathan Tyers, Eſq. purchaſed one moiety of George Dodington, Eſq. for the ſum of 3800*l.*, in the year 1752, and a few years afterwards bought the remainder. There is no certain account of time when theſe premiſes were firſt opened for the entertainment of the public. The Spring Gardens at Vauxhall are mentioned in the Spectator, as a place of great reſort. Mr. Tyers was proprietor of the Gardens as tenant, at leaſt twenty years before he purchaſed the eſtate, which is ſtill veſted in his repreſentatives. It was formerly little more than a tea garden, enlivened with inſtrumental muſic; but its rural beauty and eaſy acceſs rendered it ſo much frequented, that the proprietor was encouraged to ſpeculate on public patronage, and to augment the attractions by the introduction of vocal muſic. Theſe gardens are beautiful and extenſive, and contain a variety of walks, brilliantly illuminated with variegated lamps, terminated with tranſparent paintings, and diſpoſed with excellent taſte. Facing the weſt door is a large and ſuperb orcheſtra, decorated with a profuſion of lights of various colours. The whole edifice is of wood, painted white and bloom colour. The ornaments are of a compoſition ſomething like plaiſter of Paris. In fine weather the muſical entertainments are performed here by a ſelect band of the beſt vocal and inſtrumental performers. At the upper extremity of this orcheſtra, a very fine organ is erected, and at the foot of it are the ſeats and deſks for the muſicians, placed in a ſemi-circle, leaving a vacancy at the front for vocal performers. A curious piece of machinery has of late years been exhibited on the inſide of one of the hedges, which is announced at ten o'clock by the ringing of a bell, ſituated in a hollow, on the left hand, about half way up the walk; by drawing up a curtain, is ſhewn a moſt beautiful landſcape, of a fine open hilly country,

try, with a miller's houſe, and a water mill, all illuminated by concealed lights; but the principal object that ſtrikes the eye is a caſcade or water-fall. The exact appearance of water is ſeen flowing down a declivity, and turning the wheel of the mill, it riſes up in a foam at the bottom, and glides away. Several moving figures are introduced, particularly a mail coach, the guard of which blows his horn and ſhoots a robber; and a mad ox who toſſes and gores ſeveral perſons to the vaſt delight of the ſpectators. Fronting the orcheſtra is a large pavilion of the compoſite order, which particularly attracts the eye by its ſize, beauty, and ornaments. The different boxes and apartments of theſe gardens are adorned with paintings, many of which are executed in good ſtyle. The labours of Hogarth and Hayman are the moſt conſpicuous. Hayman has choſen his ſubjects from the works of Shakſpeare. In cold or rainy weather, in order to ſhelter the company, the muſical performance is in a great room, or rotunda, ſeventy feet in diameter, and containing an elegant orcheſtra. The roof of this rotunda is ſo contrived, that ſounds never vibrate under it; and thus muſic is heard to the greateſt advantage. Next is a piazza of five arches which open into a ſemi-circle of proviſions, with a temple and dome at each end. In the middle of the piazza is a grand portico of the Doric order, and under the arch, on a pedeſtal, is a beautiful marble ſtatue of Handel, in the character of Orpheus, playing on his lyre, done by the celebrated M. Roubiliac. Fire works of the moſt ingenious kind have lately been introduced, to increaſe the allurements of this charming ſpot. Theſe entertainments keep the company engaged three times a-week during ſummer till midnight; and the parties who ſup are well ſupplied and accommodated in the boxes, while others dance to the light muſic played by ſmall bands in various parts of the gardens. Foreigners acknowledge that no country on the continent exhibits a ſcene at once ſo ſplendid and taſteful.

Tea Gardens. The patronage extended to Vauxhall was probably among the firſt cauſes of the eſtabliſhment of Tea Gardens with muſic. In the abſtract nothing can be conſidered more innocent and proper than places of reſort where the tradeſman and his family may indulge in their accuſtomed afternoon beverage in the open air, enjoying the beauties of the country, and cheered by the ſound of a well-touched inſtrument. In practice, however, it has been found that theſe Gardens have often become the reſort of the moſt profligate and licentious characters, the worſt of proſtitutes, and

and moſt daring of ruffians. Several which were eſtabliſhed in St. George's fields have on this account been ſhut up; to others in the county of Middleſex, a muſic licence has been moſt properly refuſed by the magiſtrates, and they to whom this privilege is allowed owe it entirely to their uninterrupted good conduct. Among the moſt conſiderable of theſe are Bagnigge Wells, near Gray's Inn lane; and White Conduit Houſe, near Pentonville. There are many others where no muſic is played.

THE POOR.

In every point of view, the poor muſt be regarded as a ſubject of the higheſt intereſt. The neceſſity of providing for thoſe whom misfortunes, unaccompanied by vice or crime, have rendered incapable of earning their own ſupport, enforces itſelf on every conſiderate mind, without recourſe to argument or exhortation; but, on the other hand, the propriety of reſcuing the pittance of thoſe who really have claims to relief from the graſp of thoſe who would audaciouſly ſeize and apply it to the maintenance of profligate idleneſs, has been equally felt, and has given riſe to many theories and a great number of ſtatutes and deciſions. In England, where nothing that regards the happineſs and welfare of any conſiderable portion of the community has been overlooked by the legiſlature, many ſtatutes have been paſſed for enabling the poor to obtain from the more favoured part of mankind the means of ſubſiſtence, and, at the ſame time, limiting ſuch claims to proper objects both in application and ſupply. In theſe ſtatutes the principle has been, to conſider relief as a right, not as a boon; and as it is to be demanded, the duty to pay has been guarded with as much caution as any ſimilar duty can be, by the care and wiſdom of man. The legiſlature has alſo uſed proper means to encourage thoſe aſſociations by which perſons moſt likely to become the objects of parochial relief may, by mutual ſupport and aſſiſtance, prevent that contingency from taking place, and many claſſes who are not immediately expoſed to the ſame danger, have formed ſocieties for the ſame purpoſe. Still, as the general benevolence of the legiſlature, and the care of ſeparate claſſes of men, muſt in many inſtances fail in affording all the aſſiſtance requiſite for thoſe whom various ſtrokes of fortune have reduced to different degrees of wretchedneſs, the charity of individuals

and

and of corporate bodies has been moſt extenſively diſplayed in the proviſion of numerous receptacles and funds, by means of which almoſt all who feel diſtreſs may find aſſiſtance; and, if the condition of the world will not allow that miſery ſhall be baniſhed from the abodes of man, its preſſure may be mitigated in all poſſible caſes, and the ſum of human woe reduced in the greateſt attainable degree.

It is here propoſed, in the firſt place, to ſtate the proviſions made by the legiſlature for relieving their poor, as matter of right and of duty; and then to notice ſome of the moſt conſiderable ſpeculations on this great object. In the next place, to advert to the aſſociations eſtabliſhed for mutual relief; and laſtly, to give an outline of the principal eſtabliſhments, particularly in and near the metropolis, for the relief of the indigent and unfortunate of different claſſes.

Poor Laws. Without treating this ſubject in a manner that can be conſidered as technical, a general ſtatement of the ſcope and effect of theſe regulations is intended; and the order followed by Mr. Nolan, in his Treatiſe on the Poor Laws, is adopted, as moſt capable of affording eaſy and ſatisfactory information.

The duty of maintaining the poor, this author obſerves, is ſaid to have devolved upon the clergy for ſome ages after the introduction of chriſtianity into England. Originally a fourth, and afterwards a third of their tithes was devoted to this charitable purpoſe, and adminiſtered by the incumbent, under the ſuperintendance of his biſhop. The churchwardens and principal inhabitants are ſuppoſed to have taken ſome ſhare in making a judicious application of this parochial fund. But if ſuch interference ever did take place, it was by the rector's permiſſion, for they had no power to direct the expenditure or controul the miſuſe.

The period is not aſcertained at which this portion of tithes was applied to other purpoſes. We may conjecture that it was gradually re-aſſumed, through the increaſe of monaſtic inſtitutions. The principal or rectorial tithes of many pariſhes, being appropriated to the uſe of religious orders, they undertook a ſhare of the burthen, as they retained the funds originally ſet apart for the poors' ſupport.

The legiſlature did not interfere with this appropriation of the eccleſiaſtical revenues, except in a ſolitary inſtance. In the fifteenth of Richard the Second an act paſſed, requiring, "that in every licence to be made in the chancery, of the appropriation of any pariſh church, it ſhall be expreſſed

preſſed that the dioceſan ſhall ordain, according to the value of ſuch church, a convenient ſum of money to be paid and diſtributed yearly, of the fruits and profits thereof, to the poor pariſhioners, in aid of their living and ſuſtenance for ever."

Until the firſt attack made upon monaſtic property at the dawn of the Reformation, the clergy were permitted to deal with their revenues in other reſpects according to private diſcretion, the ſtatutes of thoſe by whom eccleſiaſtical corporations were founded or endowed, and the ſuperintending controul of their ſuperiors. Several ſtatutes paſſed between theſe periods to regulate the internal economy of religious houſes; but their object was to eaſe them of oppreſſive viſits from the great, and a tributary hoſpitality exacted by the powerful, which abſorbed their revenues, and uſurped the portion of charity and the dues of the indigent.

The alms given by theſe houſes, together with hoſpitals and other inſtitutions, founded and endowed for the purpoſe, conſtituted the chief, but not the ſole, reſources of thoſe who fell back upon their fellow-creatures as unable to ſuſtain themſelves. The effects of perſons dying inteſtate were veſted in the ordinary, to be applied, among other pious uſes, to relieve the poor of his dioceſe; and private charity derived vigour and energy beyond the common impulſe of humanity, from the ſuperſtitious notion that prayers purchaſed by donations to the poor, conferred everlaſting happineſs upon the dead.

The aged and impotent poor had no other ſources of ſupport, until the reign of Henry VIII.; for ſince the conqueſt, neither the common nor ſtatute law made any direct proviſion for the purpoſe, unleſs permitting the poor to beg by licence can be deemed an exception.

The author of the Mirror ſtates, indeed, that by the common law, "the poor were to be ſuſtained by parſons, rectors of the church, and the pariſhioners, ſo that none of them ſhall die for default of ſuſtenance." But no method is pointed out by which the performance of this duty could be enforced, or its omiſſion puniſhed. Such abſtinence from regulation, on the part of our civil government, is no ſlight teſtimony that the clergy devoted a ſufficient portion of their immenſe property to maintain the poor. If any objection can be made to their conduct, it is, that their charities were laviſhed with inconſiderate humanity, detrimental to the induſtry and police of the country.

The various and highly penal laws made during this period againſt vagrants and ſturdy beggars, a deſcription of

perſons who ſprung from, and were nouriſhed in their way of life, by the largeſſes of miſguided piety, gives ſome countenance to this opinion.

But a more direct proof of the fidelity with which the clergy adminiſtered the truſt repoſed in them, ariſes from obſerving, that the firſt legiſlative attempt to provide for the impotent poor, was made in the very year when the property of the religious houſes was veſted in the crown. The firſt great act of diſſolution, 27 Henry VIII. c. 28., affords a deciſive teſtimony, not only of their hoſpitality, but of their efforts to promote the induſtry of the country. It enacts, that all perſons to whom the king ſhall demiſe the ſites and demeſnes of any of the diſſolved houſes, ſhall keep an honeſt continual houſe and houſehold there; and for that purpoſe occupy yearly as much of the demeſnes in ploughing and tillage of huſbandry, as the ſaid religious houſes had done before, on pain of *6l.* 13*s.* 4*d.* a-month, and the juſtices in ſeſſions were to inquire thereof. This regulation continued until 21 James I., when the clauſe was repealed.

The 27 Henry VIII. c. 25. contains the firſt proviſion by which particular diſtricts are directed to ſupport their poor, ſo that none of them of very neceſſity ſhall be compelled to go openly in begging. The act was enforced by a trivial penalty of 20*s.* per month. Many ſchemes were propoſed and enforced by ſubſequent ſtatutes to accompliſh this object. They are collected in the fourth chapter of Dr. Burn's Hiſtory of the Poor Laws, and it is ſufficient for the preſent purpoſe to point out their general tendency in the words of that reſpectable author.

"It is curious," he ſays, "to obſerve the progreſs, by what natural ſteps and advances the compulſory maintenance became eſtabliſhed. Firſt, the poor were reſtrained from begging at large, and were confined to beg within certain diſtricts. Next, the ſeveral hundreds, towns corporate, pariſhes, hamlets, or other like diviſions, were required to ſuſtain them with ſuch charitable and voluntary alms, as that none of them of neceſſity might be compelled to go openly in begging. And the churchwardens, or other ſubſtantial inhabitants, were to make collections for them with boxes on Sundays, and otherwiſe by their diſcretions. And the miniſter was to take all opportunities to exhort and ſtir up the people to be liberal and bountiful. Next, houſes were to be provided for them, by the devotion of good people, and materials to ſet them on ſuch work as they were able to perform. Then, the miniſter, after the goſpel every Sunday,

Sunday, was ſpecially to exhort the pariſhioners to a liberal contribution. Next, the collectors for the poor, on a certain Sunday in every year, immediately after divine ſervice, were to take down in writing what every perſon was willing to give for the enſuing year; and if any ſhould be obſtinate and refuſe to give, the miniſter was gently to exhort him; if ſtill he refuſed, the miniſter was to certify ſuch refuſal to the biſhop of the dioceſe, and the biſhop was to ſend for and exhort him in like manner; if he ſtood out againſt the biſhop's exhortation, then the biſhop was to certify the ſame to the juſtices in ſeſſions, and bind him over to appear there; and the juſtices, at the ſaid ſeſſions, were again gently to move and perſuade him; and, finally, if he would not be perſuaded, then they were to aſſeſs him what they thought reaſonable towards the relief of the poor. And this brought on the general aſſeſſment in the fourteenth year of Queen Elizabeth."

This ſtatute underwent ſome modifications during the government of that excellent princeſs. But in the 43d year of her reign, another act was framed upon thoſe which had paſſed previouſly, and which is ſaid to have firſt introduced a right to a maintenance by ſettlement. Under this ſtatute, with a few alterations to be noticed hereafter, the fund for ſetting the poor to work, and maintaining thoſe who are unable to do ſo, is raiſed at this day.

PARISHES. The more ancient ſtatutes for regulating the poor were enacted to repreſs vagrancy, not to provide for their maintenance. They refer to the civil diviſion of the kingdom into townſhips and hundreds, and not to that of pariſhes, which reſpects our eccleſiaſtical inſtitutions. But, after the ſuppreſſion of monaſteries, the firſt direct mode adopted for raiſing a fund to relieve the indigent was by collecting alms in the church. This may be attributed to the former liberality of the clergy, and their influence upon the charitable feelings of their pariſhioners, which conjecture is ſtrengthened by obſerving that the original means of enforcing contributions, as ordained by ſtatute, were eccleſiaſtical exhortations. When money was thus collected by pariſhes, it followed of courſe that it ſhould be diſtributed within the ſame limits. The 43d of Eliz. c. 2. made no alteration in this particular, but deviſed a more effectual method for raiſing that fund in pariſhes, by which the poor were ſupported there when the ſtatute paſſed.

It enacted, that "the churchwardens of every pariſh, and four, three or two ſubſtantial houſeholders there, as ſhall be thought meet, having reſpect to the proportion and

greatneſs of the ſame pariſh and pariſhes, to be nominated yearly in Eaſter week, or within one month after Eaſter, under the hand and ſeal of two or more juſtices of the peace in the ſame county, whereof one to be of the quorum, dwelling in or near the ſame pariſh or diviſion where the ſame pariſh doth lie, ſhall be overſeers of the poor of the ſame."

Sect. 9. provided, that where any pariſh extends into more counties than one, or into different liberties, the magiſtrates of which poſſeſs an excluſive juriſdiction, that each ſet of magiſtrates ſhall nominate overſeers within their reſpective juriſdictions, who are to execute the office through the entire pariſh.

By this act, therefore, the appointment of overſeers, and every proviſion for the management of the poor, was confined to pariſhes; but various inconveniences having ariſen from this reſtriction, ſubſequent ſtatutes enacted, that where pariſhes were too large for the poor to be adequately provided for, every townſhip or village ſhould have its overſeers, and that theſe officers might alſo be appointed for ſuch town and vills as were extra-parochial.

The court of quarter ſeſſion has no power to divide a pariſh into townſhips, by an original order, or to erect a vill into an independent diſtrict, which ſhall maintain its own poor. It is done by two magiſtrates, appointing overſeers, in the ſame manner as thoſe officers are appointed for diſtricts which have ſuſtained their poor ſince the ſtatute paſſed. But magiſtrates do not uſually interfere in the firſt inſtance to divide a pariſh into townſhips, which has previouſly maintained its poor in the aggregate. It is more prudent to take the opinion of the Court of King's Bench in another ſhape, as to the expediency of doing ſo before they bring a meaſure into effect, which may be attended with ſome reſponſibility. To divide a pariſh into diſtricts two things are neceſſary; 1ſt, It ſhould conſiſt of two or more diſtinct vills or townſhips; 2d. It muſt appear that the pariſh cannot otherwiſe conveniently enjoy the benefit of the 43d Eliz. c. 2. It is alſo decided that a pariſh which has been divided may reunite by voluntary agreement, for the purpoſe of maintaining its poor by one joint rate, under the management of joint overſeers. But while a pariſh continues ſubdivided, the ſeparate diviſions are to be conſidered with reſpect to the poor laws as ſeparate pariſhes.

Overseers. Overſeers of the poor are, 1. The churchwardens; 2. Inhabitants who are ſpecially appointed to the office, under the ſtatutes already mentioned. Of the appoint-

pointments and duties of churchwardens, ſome account has already been given in vol. 1. p. 386.

The appointment of overſeers for pariſhes or townſhips is to be made in counties by two or more juſtices of the peace. In towns and places corporate, and cities, they are appointed by the mayors, bailiffs, and other head officers, being juſtices of the peace, and no other juſtices of peace to enter or meddle there. But it cannot be made by the head officer alone, if there are other corporate juſtices, the ſignature of two magiſtrates being neceſſary in that caſe, as well as in counties. When a pariſh extends into more counties than one, or part lies within the limits of any city, town, or place corporate, the juſtices of the counties and head officers of the city, ſhall within their ſeveral limits, wards, and juriſdictions, execute the ordinances reſpecting overſeers; but the churchwardens or overſeers, or the moſt part of them of the ſaid pariſhes, ſhall, without dividing themſelves, execute their office in all places within the ſaid pariſh.

This appointment is to be made yearly, in Eaſter week, or within one month after Eaſter; and if neglected, the juſtices dwelling within the diviſion, and every mayor, alderman, and head officer of a city, town, or place corporate, where the default ſhall happen, is to forfeit 5*l.* for every ſuch default, to the relief of the poor, to be levied by the pariſh officers by diſtreſs, under a warrant from the quarter ſeſſions. After the month is expired, and no officer appointed, the court upon application will grant a mandamus to compel the magiſtrates to make one.

If an overſeer dies, or removes from the place for which he is appointed, or becomes inſolvent, two juſtices may, on oath thereof, appoint another in his ſtead to continue till new ones are appointed.

The appointment of fit perſons for the diſcharge of this office, is a diſcretionary power veſted in the juſtices, who are to ſelect ſuch houſeholders as they think moſt proper, having reſpect to the circumſtances of the place and condition of the individual. To enable them to make a fit ſelection, it is uſual for the exiſting overſeers, ſometime before the expiration of their year, to form a liſt of a ſufficient number of ſubſtantial houſeholders within the pariſh, proper to ſucceed to the office. Where this is not done voluntarily, the juſtices generally iſſue a precept to the high conſtable of the diviſion, or conſtable-wick, commanding him to iſſue his warrant to the petty conſtables of thoſe places in which it has been omitted, requiring them to give

the overſeers notice, that they ſhall forthwith deliver the ſame.

The 43 Eliz. directs that the overſeers for pariſhes "are to be four, three, or two ſubſtantial houſeholders, having reſpect to the proportion and greatneſs of the pariſh;" and 13 and 14 Car. II., "that there ſhall be two or more for townſhips or villages." More than four, and leſs than two, cannot be appointed; for the number deſcending in the act of Elizabeth, ſhews that it was the intent of the legiſlature to prevent the appointment of a greater number to a burthenſome office, not likely to be better executed by many than by few.

Women are not incompetent to ſerve this office, although men are more fit.

Some perſons are exempted from the burthen of this office by their neceſſary attendance on other public duties: ſuch as practiſing barriſters and attornies. A clergyman, though he has no cure of ſouls; an officer of the cuſtoms, though he have not his writ of privilege at the time of his appointment; and all revenue officers, as officers of the Exchequer. Some perſons are exempted by ſtatute; ſuch are the preſident, commons, and fellows of the College of Phyſicians within the city of London, for a phyſician is not exempted otherwiſe. Freemen of the company and corporation of Surgeons in London, who are examined and approved; while they exerciſe the art. Apothecaries exerciſing the art within the city of London, and ſeven miles thereof, if free of the Apothecaries' Company, and thoſe who uſe and exerciſe it elſewhere, if they have ſerved ſeven years apprenticeſhip. Thoſe who apprehend perſons guilty of burglary, or privately ſtealing to the value of five ſhillings in a ſhop, warehouſe, coach-houſe, or ſtable, and proſecute to conviction, ſhall have a certificate, which ſhall diſcharge them or their reſpective aſſignees from all pariſh and ward offices, in the pariſh where the felony is committed. Serjeants, corporals, drummers, and privates in the militia, from the time of their inrolment till their regular diſcharge, are excuſed from ſerving as overſeers; as are diſſenting miniſters taking the oaths, and ſubſcribing the declaration and articles of the Church of England, required by the toleration act. But other diſſenters who are appointed, and ſcruple to take the office upon them, have no further privilege than that of ſerving by deputy, provided the deputy is allowed and approved of by ſuch perſon and perſons, in ſuch manner as the principal ſhould by law have been allowed or appointed.

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As to the form of the order of appointment, it muſt be under hand and ſeal, and therefore in writing. It ſhould purſue the words of the act, and appoint the perſons named "overſeers" *eo nomine*. It muſt further expreſs, that they are "ſubſtantial houſeholders there, or in the pariſh; and that the appointment is for a pariſh or townſhip, or what is ſynonymous, an hamlet, as the caſe may be." The order muſt likewiſe ſet forth, that the diſtrict for which it is made is within the county or corporate place over which the magiſtrates who make it poſſeſs juriſdiction. It muſt alſo expreſs the time for which theſe officers are appointed; and it is not only to be under the hand and ſeal of two juſtices, but they muſt ſign and ſeal in the preſence of each other, or it will not be good.

If any "perſon or perſons are aggrieved" by the appointment, they may appeal to the next quarter ſeſſions, whoſe juriſdiction extends over the place for which they are appointed. On the order either of appointment by the juſtices, or of the ſeſſion on the appeal, may be moved into the Court of King's Bench, by *certiorari*; but if thoſe who are appointed do not take one of theſe ſteps to get freed from the office; or if doing ſo, the original order is confirmed, they are liable to an indictment where they refuſe to undertake or execute the duty. But they muſt have notice of their appointment.

The care of the poor is intruſted to them in conjunction with the churchwardens, where there are any. They are required to meet at leaſt once a month in the church, on Sunday, after divine ſervice in the afternoon, under the forfeiture of 20*s*. to the uſe of the poor, by every one who abſents himſelf from theſe meetings without lawful cauſe; and if negligent in their office, they are ſubject to the like penalty for every default. The forfeitures to be levied by ſome or one of the churchwardens and overſeers, by warrant of diſtreſs from two juſtices; and in defect of diſtreſs, any two ſuch juſtices may commit the offender to the common gaol, there to remain without bail or mainprize, till the forfeiture ſhall be paid. But the perſon aggrieved may appeal to the quarter ſeſſions, whoſe order ſhall bind all parties. The power of acting is veſted in the major part, and they are to continue in office until the Eaſter enſuing their appointment, when others are to be elected. The moſt prominent points of their duty are: 1ſt, To make a rate, in order to raiſe a fund for the maintenance of the poor. 2d. To aſcertain what poor the place for which they are appointed is bound to maintain. 3d. To remove ſuch perſons

as it is not liable to ſupport ſo ſoon as they become actually chargeable. 4th. To inſpect the economy, and adminiſter to the wants of their proper poor. 5th and laſtly, Upon going out of office, to make up and paſs their accounts, and deliver over any balance in their hands to their ſucceſſors, together with the property and documents of the pariſh.

Rate. The fund raiſed for the general relief of the poor, is called the Poor's Rate. The power of making a rate is veſted entirely in the churchwardens and overſeers, or the major part of them, and the concurrence of the inhabitants is not neceſſary.

But as the ſtatute requires that it ſhould be made by the major part of the pariſh officers, a rate cannot be made by one overſeer.

If the officers refuſe to make a rate, the Court of King's Bench, where a caſe is laid before them upon affidavit, will hear both parties, and, if neceſſary, compel them to do ſo by mandamus. But they will not intermeddle with the equality of aſſeſſment, or interfere even ſo far as to command them to make an equal rate. For the overſeers are to take care of that in the firſt inſtance, and the court of quarter ſeſſions, upon appeal, in the ſecond. They will grant the writ, however, to compel them to rate a particular deſcription of property, if it be altogether omitted.

The act preſcribes, that the rate ſhall be made "with the conſent of two or more juſtices of peace, dwelling in or near the ſame pariſh or diviſion where the pariſh doth lie, whereof one to be of the quorum." The firſt ſtep therefore to be taken after making the rate is, to carry it to two juſtices for their conſent, or, as it is uſually termed, "their allowance." This allowance is, in their individual capacity of magiſtrates, and not as a court of ſeſſion, which has no original juriſdiction reſpecting rates.

Whatever might have been the legiſlature's intention in requiring the conſent of the neighbouring juſtices to a rate, it has been often decided that they are to act miniſterially, and muſt allow it as a matter of form, without exerciſing any diſcretion to refuſe where they think it unjuſtly and improperly made. But if two rates are preſented to them by different officers of the ſame pariſh, they are ſaid to have an election of ſigning that which they conſider as moſt equitable.

It is required by 17 Geo. II. c. 9., that the churchwardens and overſeers, or other perſons authorized to take care of the poor, ſhall give public notice of the rate on the Sunday after it has been allowed by the juſtices, otherwiſe it is null

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and void. It muſt be publiſhed therefore in the church, and on the Sunday enſuing the allowance. After a rate has been thus allowed, it is not to be altered by inſerting other names, even with the magiſtrate's approbation.

TERM. By the ſtatute of Elizabeth, this fund is to be raiſed weekly *or otherwiſe*; and by a liberal and uſeful conſtruction of theſe latter words, it has been determined that the rate may be laid for a year, a half year, or, as it ſeems, for any other time ſhort of a year, in advance.

PURPOSES. The general purpoſes for which this rate is to be raiſed, as ſtated in the act of Elizabeth, are, for ſetting to work thoſe who are able; relieving ſuch as are not; and for apprenticing the children of parents unable to maintain them; alſo by 9 Geo. I. for purchaſing workhouſes. 18 Geo. III. c. 19. enacts, that money ſhall be taken from this fund to repay conſtables, &c. what they expend for the relief and removal of paupers and vagrants, which the 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 12. ſ. 18. had directed to be raiſed by a ſeparate rate. The poor's rate ſeems applicable to no other purpoſe, except defraying ſuch law expences as are neceſſarily incurred by the overſeers in the diſcharge of their office, at leaſt when the proceedings are directed by the veſtry. Thus the ſalary of an aſſiſtant overſeer, appointed by a veſtry meeting, cannot be paid out of it, nor a ſum of money borrowed by the pariſh to rebuild a workhouſe.

Where an overſeer diſburſes money out of his private funds to relieve the poor, he may make a rate during his continuance in office, and reimburſe himſelf from the produce; or if the rate is unpaid at the expiration of his year, the ſucceeding overſeers are directed by ſtatute "to levy ſuch arrears, and reimburſe their predeceſſors all ſums expended for the uſe of the poor, and allowed to be due to them in their accounts."

PERSONS TO BE RATED. The 43d of Eliz. directs that the ſums thereby required ſhall be raiſed by taxation of every inhabitant, parſon, vicar, and others, and of every occupier of lands, &c. in the pariſh. By this clauſe the aſſeſſment is to be made upon the inhabitants and other occupiers of land, &c. according to the ability of the pariſh, and the tax is levied upon the perſon in reſpect of ſome particular property poſſeſſed or occupied by him. All perſons who inhabit the diſtrict for which the rate is made, being able to contribute, and all who occupy real property there, although dwelling elſewhere, come within the act. A corporate body is rateable as well as a private individual.

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The king is alone exempt by reaſon of his prerogative, as not being mentioned in the ſtatute.

Two great principles were laid down by all the judges very ſoon after the 43 Elizabeth was paſſed, reſpecting the rateability of property. Firſt, the aſſeſſment is to be made according to the viſible eſtate of the inhabitants, both real and perſonal. For the ſtatute renders inhabitants liable to this tax, as a diſtinct claſs from occupiers of real property, and muſt therefore affect their perſonal eſtate. Second, No inhabitant is to be taxed to contribute to the relief of the poor, in regard of any eſtate he hath elſewhere in any other town or place.

PROPERTY TO BE RATED. The taxation is to be on lands, houſes, tithes impropriate, propriations of tithes, coal-mines, or ſaleable underwoods in the ſaid pariſh, to be gathered out of the ſame pariſh according to the ability of the ſame pariſh. All eſtate or property within the pariſh is divided by theſe reſolutions into real and perſonal. The meaning of *real property*, in the poor laws, appears to have been confined in many caſes to immoveable things, which are the direct object of ſight and touch, and to be ſynonymous to what is underſtood by lands and tenements. More recent deciſions ſeem to conſider it as extending likewiſe to all incorporeal rights which iſſue out of lands and tenements, and perhaps (though never directly decided) it is to be underſtood as comprehending all that is ſignified by the term *hereditament*, which, to follow the definition given by Judge Blackſtone, includes "not only lands and tenements, but whatſoever may be inherited, be it corporeal or incorporeal, real, perſonal, or mixed."

"By *perſonal property* is underſtood ſtock in trade, goods, money, and all other moveables, which may attend the owner's perſon wherever he thinks proper to go."

Lands and Houſes are put by way of example, and not as excluding other kinds of real property of a ſimilar nature; for, not only lands and houſes, but ſhops, ſheds, and all things real which render an annual revenue, are ſubject to the rate. And although the tax is laid upon the land or houſe, it is in reſpect of the revenue or annual profits which iſſue from them, and that, whether they are produced by nature or by means wholly artificial; for, things very diſtinct from the natural profits of land are rateable under that name; the land being conſidered as the principal, the profits of which are augmented by the annexation of the acceſſary. Thus not only thoſe who have the excluſive enjoyment of land for the purpoſe of turning their cattle on it, are

rateable as the tenants; but natural productions connected with the land, as a mineral ſpring; and artificial profits, as of a towing-path, a dock, or a waggon-way, have been deemed objects to be rated. Incorporeal hereditaments have been deemed rateable as an adjunct profit when annexed to lands and houſes, although not iſſuing from thence. Thus an eſtate may be rateable in a higher proportion, on account of a right of common being appendant to it. In the ſame manner, a real ſubject is rateable according to its annual value, although that value be derived from the annexation of a perſonal chattel. As where a corporation, being poſſeſſed of a houſe, erected a machine in the ſtreet leading by the ſaid houſe, for the purpoſe of weighing waggons, carts, &c., loaded with coal, &c., at 2*d.* a ton, the ſteelyard part of the ſaid weighing machine was, and always had been, in the houſe. The corporation was rated for the *machine houſe*, according to the annual value not only of the houſe itſelf, but of the clear profits of the machine. And where a building containing a carding machine for manufacturing cotton, not fixed to the premiſes, but capable of being moved at pleaſure, and worth by itſelf only two guineas *per annum*, the building and machine together were rated at 36*l.*; the court were of opinion whether the machine was actually fixed to the building or not, yet being demiſed with it, and forming one entire ſubject, and the rate being on the building, it was properly rated for the entire profits. In like manner the profits of a malt mill, and a billiard table, let with a houſe, have been allowed to form the eſtimate of value in the rate. Theſe inſtances will ſerve to convey a general notion on this head, but all the diſtinctions which ariſe with reſpect to the rating of incorporeal hereditaments belong properly to a law treatiſe, and will be found in Mr. Nolan's work, which has here been chiefly relied on.

Tithes impropriate *and* propriations of tithes alone are mentioned in the ſtatute; thoſe in the hands of the efficient incumbent, whether parſon or vicar being omitted; but as the act directs that the "parſon or vicar" ſhall be taxed, it muſt intend that it ſhall be for that property which conſtitutes the chief ſubject of their occupancy; tithes being deemed a tenement by our law. Not only parſonage-houſes and glebe-lands are rateable in the hands of the occupier, but both rectorial and vicarial tithes have been always deemed ſo, whether due by common law or by cuſtom. Such are the tithes of fiſh caught in the ſea; for it is a certain annual profit received within the pariſh without

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any riſk run. A modus, or other compoſition paid in lieu of tithes, is equally liable to this tax. So alſo a rate or aſſeſſment directed by ſtatute to be made in lieu of all tithes and other eccleſiaſtical dues, is rateable, unleſs exempted by expreſs proviſion, as are likewiſe oblations or other offerings, which conſtitute the rectorial or vicarial dues, and even a penſion payable to the parſon.

Coal Mines form the next ſpecies of property mentioned in the ſtatute. Theſe are rateable by the expreſs words of the act. But it has been held, as other mines were known in the country when the ſtatute paſſed, the mention of this inferior ſpecies of mine amounts to a tacit exemption or excluſion of all others, ſuch as lead, tin, copper, iron mines, or any other but coal mines. The owners of duties ariſing out of metallic mines, ſuch as the lot and cope of lead mines, the toll and farm tin of tin mines, are rateable when they are paid clear of deduction, and freed from the hazards of working. Neither does the exception extend beyond mines properly ſo called. Lime works are not comprehended within it, but their profits are rateable in the hands of the occupier, although uncertain in their amount, owing to the expence and riſk of working. Upon the ſame principle, the occupier of a ſlate quarry is held rateable; and it was held to be ſo clear as not to endure diſcuſſion, that clay pits worked (for the purpoſe of getting potter's clay) at conſiderable expence, and with conſiderable, though fluctuating profit, are rateable.

Saleable Underwoods. Woods, conſiſting of what is called great wood or timber trees, of twenty years growth and upwards, are exempt from contributing to the poor, as they are freed from tithes; but this exemption of wood is not confined to trees coming within the ſtrict legal deſcription of timber, ſuch as oak, aſh, and elm: it is ſufficient if the trees in queſtion are deemed ſo by the cuſtom of a particular diſtrict. Thus wood lands, the trees growing thereon conſiſting chiefly of beech, and ſome oak and aſh trees, there being no coppice wood, and the underwood being left to grow as ſtandards, were held not rateable, beech being found by the ſeſſions to be *timber*, by the cuſtom of that particular part of the country. And it retains the privilege, although it be put to the uſes of underwood, being cut and made up in parcels for firing.

Exemptions. Several local acts grant exemptions to particular ſpecies of property which would otherwiſe be rateable, but theſe it is not neceſſary to mention; except for the purpoſe of noticing the deciſion, that even where a rate

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was by a local ſtatute directed to be raiſed by the aſſeſſment of money out at intereſt, government ſtock was not money out at intereſt, within the meaning of this local ſtatute, and therefore not taxable under it; and alſo, that it was not taxable under the 43 of Eliz., not being local viſible property within the pariſh.

PERSONAL PROPERTY. The ſtatute makes no ſpecific mention of any other kind of property than thoſe which are already treated of. But as it requires that the ſeveral inhabitants ſhould be taxed according to the ability of the pariſh, it renders them liable to the extent of that ability, however conſtituted. The pecuniary funds, or ability of the inhabitants, when referred to their ſources, are diviſible into three kinds: 1ſt, What ariſes from real property. 2d. What ariſes from capital ſtock, or as it is here called, perſonal property. And 3d. The produce of perſonal labour, or, in other words, "what ariſes from the ingenuity of a man's head, or the work of his hands." The opinion that the profits of perſonal labour are not rateable *eo nomine*, or in the moment in which they are made, is confirmed by ſeveral decided caſes. Thus an officer in the ſalt office, or in the cuſtoms; a captain in the navy, or merchants' ſervice; and a clerk to a merchant, have been held not rateable for their reſpective ſalaries; nor an attorney for the profits of his profeſſion; nor a ſilk throwſter for the profit he makes by cleaning and throwing his employer's ſilk; for it would be to tax labour, and not pecuniary ability.

As it was unuſual to aſſeſs perſonal property for near two centuries ſubſequent to the ſtatute, the court felt conſiderable reluctance to decide upon its rateability. Such an univerſal agreement to omit it was conſidered as ſtrong evidence to ſhew the impoſſibility of rating it. But it was at length held to be clearly rateable for its profits where they can be aſcertained, and a mandamus was granted to compel the juſtices to aſſeſs it. A clothier, therefore, a draper or ſhopkeeper, and a merchant, are rateable for their ſtock in trade; a butcher for capital employed in his buſineſs. The owners of ſhips are, when reſident, rateable to that pariſh in which the ſhips lie, if the port is their home. In one caſe the court ſeemed of opinion, that the ſtock in trade of a brewer was not rateable; but this was before the general queſtion reſpecting the rateability of perſonal property was determined; the deciſion turned upon another point, and as there is no principle upon which it is to be diſtinguiſhed from any other ſtock in trade yielding profit, it has ſince been decided to be rateable. Though the pro-

fits

fits of labour are not immediately rateable, yet, when the produce has accumulated, and is veſted in property that is liable, it is of courſe to be aſſeſſed; for the court cannot go into the inquiry whether ſuch profits were the profits of a trade or a profeſſion, or how they were acquired; the queſtion whether rateable or not, muſt depend upon the form that has been given them, the thing that viſibly exiſts. Thus, fiſhermen are not rateable for the fiſh caught; but if they pay tithes to the clergyman, whoſe profit is certain, and who runs no riſk, they aſſume a new ſhape, and are, as has been already obſerved, directly rateable under the words of the ſtatute.

A difficulty, however, remains behind, even where the ſubject of the rate is clearly rateable. If the proprietor does not reſide in the pariſh, it becomes neceſſary to decide upon the claſs of property under which the thing ſought to be taxed ſhould be ranked, in order to aſcertain whether it can be rated at all. Alſo if he does reſide, moſt pariſhes have confined themſelves to rating real property, and the judges ſeem inclined to approve their conduct. Where this mode is followed, it becomes neceſſary to determine, whether a particular ſubject is real or perſonal property, in order to decide whether it ſhall be aſſeſſed with the firſt, or ſtand exempt where the ſecond is exempted. Further, where perſonal property is rated, the aſſeſſment upon real and perſonal eſtate is ſubject to very different deductions, and therefore the particular nature of each ſubject aſſeſſed muſt be aſcertained, in order to ſettle the deduction that is to be made from it.

Occupier. The thing rated muſt be actually occupied, not only becauſe the ſtatute in caſes of real property directs the tax to be laid upon the occupier; but becauſe otherwiſe it yields no profit to lay the rate upon. Thus, if an houſe be untenanted, and kept ſhut up, without being put to any uſe, it is not rateable.

In ſtrictneſs, the rate ſhould be impoſed upon the occupier, and no other perſon; who regularly ſhould be named in the rate: if laid upon the landlord inſtead of thoſe who are in poſſeſſion, it is bad, even though he has covenanted with the tenant to pay the tax for him. Under this head, too, there are ſeveral caſes of very nice diſtinction, which can only be referred to in a book of law.

It is principally to be obſerved, that as the law impoſes the aſſeſſment on the rateable occupier, ſo, if no perſon can be found to anſwer that deſcription, no rate can be made.

With

With reſpect to the mere fact of occupying corporeal hereditaments, the poſſeſſor need not be in the habit of uſing every part of the houſe to render him liable to an aſſeſſment for the whole. When the thing is from its nature incapable of bodily poſſeſſion, as in the caſe of incorporeal hereditaments, ſuch as tolls, the receipt of the profits is the occupancy which ſubjects the party to the rate.

In order to conſtitute a rateable occupier, it is neceſſary not only that the perſon ſhould have poſſeſſion, but that he ſhould have ſuch a controul and dominion over the ſubject, as implies freedom from any paramount occupation, or direct interference by a ſuperior with his domeſtic arrangements and internal management; ſuch as a farmer enjoys over his farm, and the maſter of a family over his houſe. Thus; if a tenement be divided by a partition, and inhabited by different families, the owner in one and the ſtranger in another, although theſe are ſeveral tenements, and ſeverally rateable, yet no lodger, though poſſeſſing the principal part of the houſe, was ever rated; but the owner, how ſmall ſoever the part reſerved for himſelf, is in the eye of the law the tenant for the whole, and is rated as the occupier. But where the head of the family poſſeſſes this right of controul, he is to be conſidered as occupier, although he ſtands in the relative ſituation of ſervant to his landlord in other reſpects. Therefore a keeper of the king's park, appointed by the ranger to continue during pleaſure, and occupying a lodge and two acres of land within the pariſh, in right of his appointment, is ſubject to the rate; for he occupies an houſe and two acres of land, and whether he pay for them by rent or by ſervice, can make no difference as to his being rated. And where the comptroller of Chelſea hoſpital, or officers of that or any other charitable foundations, have large diſtinct apartments appropriated to the uſe of their reſpective offices, where they and their families reſide, they are to be charged, not as ſervants of ſuch hoſpitals, or as inhabitants and occupiers of the ordinary rooms and lodgings, but as having ſeparate and diſtinct apartments, which are conſidered as their dwelling-houſes. So the porter and butler of a college are rateable for their dwelling-houſes erected for them, by and belonging to the college, if they have the entire uſe of them, without the college's intermeddling therewith.

To conſtitute a rateable occupier, it is neceſſary not only that there ſhould be an occupation in fact, but that it ſhould yield ſome return, the aſſeſſment being made on the profits of

of the ſubject aſſeſſed. Therefore the preacher of a meeting-houſe is not rateable as the occupier, unleſs he lets out the pews ſo as to reap a profit from it, and there are many ſimilar caſes. Where a profit does exiſt, it is immaterial whether the return is annual, and in a fixed unvarying proportion; or whether it is uncertain in the amount, and ſubject to riſk and expence.

Several deciſions have taken place upon the rateability of real property in the hands of particular perſons, which have chiefly ariſen in the caſe of charitable inſtitutions, and property occupied for public purpoſes. If there is no beneficial occupier for private emolument, the property is not liable to aſſeſſment; but when ſuch an occupier does exiſt, he is rateable, although the ultimate object of his occupation be to promote a charitable inſtitution, or advance the public good. The diſtinction as to where charities are rateable, and where they are not ſo, ſeems to depend upon this — whether there is any body who can be rated as occupier. The truſtees are not rateable when they intermeddle with the property merely as truſtees, becauſe their occupation is not beneficial. Neither are the poor, where they are mere inmates without power or controul over the premiſes which they inhabit, for they are not occupiers. But where the objects of a charity are occupiers, or where another is a beneficial occupier for their benefit, as in the caſes of hoſpital lands, the occupier is rateable, without conſidering the charitable purpoſe to which the profits are dedicated, although the rate muſt ultimately come from thence. Nay, where the charity is appropriated to aſſiſt the parochial poor for whoſe ſupport the rate is raiſed, the property ſeems liable to the rate if occupied, although the aſſeſſment may be nugatory in ſome inſtances, and highly improper in others.

Property occupied ſolely for the public uſe is not ſubject to aſſeſſment, neither is property in the immediate hands of the crown. Thus the royal palaces are not liable, and never have been rated. But the ſovereign's immunity from this tax does not extend beyond his actual occupation. Wherever an occupier exiſts for private benefit he may be rated; and it makes no difference whether he is a civil or military officer of the crown.

To render perſonal property rateable, it muſt not only be in the poſſeſſion of the perſon rated, but, when diſtinctly aſſeſſed as moveables, it ſhould be his actual property, and muſt likewiſe yield a profit in the hands of him who is rated. Upon this ground, a ſum of money in a man's poſſeſ-

ſion, and the furniture of his houſe, have been held not rateable.

Property, whether real or perſonal, or rather the product upon which the rate is laid, muſt ariſe in the diſtrict for which the aſſeſſment is made. In lands or tenements, this muſt of courſe be in the place where the thing itſelf is ſituate, whether the proprietor actually reſide in the pariſh or not.

PRINCIPLES OF RATING. The ſums raiſed for the poor's relief ſhould be aſſeſſed upon the productive value of all property occupied in the diſtrict for which the rate is made, for the tax has reference to the preſent local ability and ſituation of thoſe who are to pay it. A pariſh therefore cannot have a ſtanding rate, neither ſhould an old one be confirmed, for the proportions muſt vary with the fluctuations of property. It will be bad, likewiſe, if made according to the land-tax. Alſo, if two diſtricts of a pariſh agree that each ſhall contribute to maintain the entire poor in a certain proportion, and act under it for a long period, yet it will not be binding, if upon inquiry it appears that the contributions are unequal in the preſent ſtate of the pariſh. But the aſſeſſment in the old rate may be a good reaſon for making one ſimilar in the new, unleſs there is ſome increaſe or decreaſe of value. The rating of perſonal property preſents numerous and ſerious difficulties in its principles and proportions. It is not uſually rated. It is difficult to aſcertain its actual amount, unleſs by uſing thoſe arbitrary means, which are neither provided by the poor laws, nor permitted by the ſpirit of our conſtitution. Sometimes, a fair diſcloſure of his effects is ſuppoſed to injure a commercial man, and he would rather chuſe to ſubmit to the impoſition of an exorbitant aſſeſſment, than ſeek redreſs at the hazard of his credit. Theſe, and other reaſons, have induced moſt pariſhes to refrain, as it were, by common impulſe, from aſſeſſing perſonal property ſince the 43d Elizabeth. Its liability is no longer queſtionable; but the apprehenſion of miſchievous conſequences has uſually prevented its being rated even in manufacturing counties, where the omiſſion preſſes upon the landed proprietor with conſiderable hardſhip.

Real property is now aſſeſſed upon the principle, that the tax ſhall be impoſed on the actual productive value of the particular ſubject at the time of making the rate, whether that is more or leſs than what it had been when the former rate was made.

In taxing other hereditaments, ſuch as tolls, water-works, and coal-mines, of which the produce is tolerably certain,

the profits of the laſt form a fair ground to eſtimate thoſe of the riſing year, unleſs reaſons are given to increaſe or reduce it.

It has never been expreſsly decided whether a rate muſt be made upon the full value of the property in the pariſh, or whether it may be laid upon a portion of that value, ſuch as two-thirds, or one-half, provided the relative proportions of value are preſerved in all. It appears, however, that ſuch rates have been queſtioned upon other grounds, and ſuſtained, without any objection made on this account.

Of RATING IN AID. The poor are to be ſuſtained by pariſhes in the firſt inſtance; but they may ſometimes be too numerous and burthenſome for a particular pariſh to ſupport. The 43 Eliz. c. 2. ſect. 3. provided, therefore, that if the juſtices perceive that the inhabitants of a pariſh are unable to levy among themſelves ſufficient ſums of money for the purpoſes of the act, the ſaid two juſtices ſhall tax, rate, and aſſeſs as aforeſaid, any other of other pariſhes, or out of any pariſh, within the hundred where the ſaid pariſh is, to pay ſuch ſum and ſums of money to the churchwardens and overſeers of the ſaid poor pariſh, for the ſaid purpoſes as the ſaid juſtices ſhall think fit. But if the ſaid hundred ſhall not be thought by the ſaid juſtices able and fit to relieve the ſaid ſeveral pariſhes unable to provide for themſelves as aforeſaid, then the juſtices of the peace at their general quarter ſeſſions, or the greater number of them, ſhall rate and aſſeſs as aforeſaid any other of other pariſhes, or out of any pariſh within the ſaid county, for the purpoſes aforeſaid, as in their diſcretion ſhall ſeem fit. Whenever there is any perſon or pariſh within the hundred in which the pariſh unable to maintain its poor is ſituate, of ability ſufficient to ſupply the deficiency, the rate in aid is to be made by two juſtices. They have power to determine the inability of the pariſh which applies for aſſiſtance, and the capacity of thoſe upon whom they make an order to contribute.

MEANS OF ENFORCING PAYMENT. By 43 Eliz. c. 2. ſ. 4. if the rate and all arrearages be not paid voluntarily, preſent and ſubſequent churchwardens and overſeers may levy them by diſtreſs and ſale of the offender's goods; and in defect of ſuch diſtreſs, he may be committed to the county gaol. By 17 Geo. II. c. 38. ſ. 11. ſucceeding overſeers were empowered to levy arrears previouſly incurred, and to reimburſe their predeceſſors out of the money levied, ſuch ſums as they had expended for the poor's uſe, and which are allowed to be due to them in their accounts.

Before

Before any ſtep is taken to enforce payment under theſe ſtatutes, the rate muſt be lawfully demanded. And if the perſon liable ſhould die after ſuch demand, and before further proceedings, it ſeems the better opinion and ſafer practice to demand it likewiſe from his perſonal repreſentatives. If the money is tendered by any other than the perſon rated, as by the landlord on his tenant's account, it muſt be received. Where payment is refuſed, the overſeers ſhould apply to two magiſtrates of the county or place in which the diſtrict is ſituated for which the rate is made. This is uſually done at what are called petty ſeſſions, which are periodical meetings of magiſtrates who reſide within a convenient extent of country ſubject to their juriſdiction, and are held weekly or otherwiſe for the diſcharge of ſuch duties as require the conjunction of at leaſt two magiſtrates to perform. When the juſtices entertain the information, their firſt duty is to ſummon the party, or in caſe of death, his perſonal repreſentative, to hear them upon the complaint. It was the practice formerly to grant a conditional warrant in the firſt inſtance to diſtrain in caſe of non-payment; and in a reported caſe, a mandamus was directed to juſtices to ſign a warrant of diſtreſs for levying the poor's rate without ſummoning the party. But the Court of King's Bench, upon mature deliberation, diſregarded theſe precedents; becauſe a diſtreſs to levy this rate is in the nature of an execution. The juſtices muſt, therefore, exerciſe a diſcretion of enquiring into the circumſtances, and it is of courſe neceſſary that a ſummons to the perſon who refuſed to pay, ſhould precede it. The party, when ſerved with a ſummons, either refuſes to obey, or appears in conformity to the tenor of the ſummons. If he does not appear, or offer ſuch a ſatisfactory excuſe as ought to induce the magiſtrates to poſtpone the hearing until another time, the warrant of diſtreſs ſhould iſſue upon proof of ſervice of the ſummons. But if there be any juſt reaſon to ſuppoſe that granting the warrant may ſubject the juſtices to an action, ſuch as, that the rate is void for any cauſe; as, for inſtance, that the place for which it is made is without their juriſdiction; they may require the pariſh officers to ſhew that their act in granting the warrant will not be illegal. But they can inquire no further than is neceſſary for this purpoſe, ſince they are civilly anſwerable in no other caſes to perſons who may be aggrieved by their warrant. If the defendant appears, he may ſhew for cauſe why the warrant ſhould not iſſue, any thing which amounts to payment, as, that the ſum at which he ſtands rated has

been tendered by him, or by ſome perſon on his behalf, and refuſed, and that he or they are ſtill ready to pay it. That he has paid the aſſeſſment to one of the pariſh officers, who has not accounted for it. He may alſo urge any circumſtances which ſhew the rate to be a nullity, into which the magiſtrates might inquire of their own accord. Such as, that public notice has not been given of the rate in the church on the next Sunday after it was allowed by the juſtices. That the place for which it is made is not within their juriſdiction, or that it is not made for the proper diſtrict. That the ſubject for which he is aſſeſſed, is not by law rateable. That he is not liable to the rate, either as not being the occupier at all, or as not being a rateable occupier. For if the rate is void, thoſe who are rated may treat it as a nullity; and the warrant being illegal where the aſſeſſment is ſo, the magiſtrates are not compellable to iſſue one even by mandamus; and the Court will not grant the writ for the purpoſe, ſince it would be no juſtification in an action of treſpaſs brought for a diſtreſs taken under the warrant. But no other circumſtances can be enquired into at this hearing, excepting ſuch as amount to payment, or prove that the rate is a nullity. The quantum, or any overcharge in the rate, is only to be controverted by an appeal to the quarter ſeſſions. If the defendant omits to diſpute it there, he is ſuppoſed in legal conſtruction to have acknowledged the propriety of his aſſeſſment; neither can the magiſtrates refuſe their warrant, from the party's utter inability to diſcharge his quota, although it may be a good ground for appealing againſt a rate made upon him, for perſonal property.

Formerly, if notice of appeal was given, it took away the magiſtrate's juriſdiction to diſtrain until the appeal was either abandoned or decided; but now, by 41ſt Geo. III. c. 23. ſ. 1. the juſtices may proceed to recover by diſtreſs, ſo much only as the perſon then rated, or any occupier of the premiſes was rated in the laſt effective rate. The juſtices do not act miniſterially, but have diſcretionary power to grant or refuſe the warrant. But where no ſufficient cauſe is ſhewn againſt granting it, they muſt iſſue it.

The aſſeſſments in a legal rate become due from the moment that it is allowed and publiſhed; and may be demanded, and the warrant granted before the time has expired for which the rate is made. When the warrant is thus iſſued, it becomes the duty of thoſe to whom it is directed, to levy under it, and they are alone anſwerable for their conduct, if it is good in its form, and properly granted. As to the place

in

in which this levy is to be made, the moſt obvious is the pariſh for which the aſſeſſment is made. But by 17 Geo. II. c. 38. ſ. 7. the goods of any perſon aſſeſſed and refuſing to pay, may be levied by warrant of diſtreſs, not only in the place for which the aſſeſſment is made, but in any other within the ſame county or precinct. If ſufficient diſtreſs cannot be found in the ſaid county or precinct, on oath made thereof before ſome juſtice of any other county or precinct (which oath ſhall be certified under the hand of ſuch juſtice on the ſaid warrant), ſuch goods may be levied in ſuch other county or precinct by virtue of ſuch warrant or certificate. In taking goods under a warrant of diſtreſs, the law gives a power in ſome reſpects different from that which obtains in diſtreſſes made by landlords for recovery of rent. Under the ſtatutes relating to levying a poor's rate, two ſorts of things found on the premiſes of the perſon diſtrained are protected from the ſtatutory execution. 1ſt, Such as are not the actual property of the perſon rated, and refuſing to pay; the act of Eliz. expreſsly requiring, that the ſum due ſhall be levied by diſtreſs and ſale "of the offender's goods." 2d, Things affixed to the freehold, and which therefore do not come properly under the legal denomination of "goods," as they are called by the act of Eliz., or "goods and chattels," as by the ſubſequent ſtatutes. The goods are to be publicly ſold at the time directed in the warrant, unleſs the ſum due, with reaſonable charges for taking and keeping the diſtreſs, is previouſly paid. When ſold, the officer who makes the diſtreſs is empowered by 27 Geo. II. c. 20. to deduct the reaſonable charges of taking, keeping, and ſelling the diſtreſs out of the money ariſing by the ſale; and the overplus, after fully ſatisfying and paying theſe charges, and the ſum directed to be levied, is to be returned on demand to the owner of the goods and chattels diſtrained. If the officer does not obtain ſufficient goods by his firſt diſtreſs to ſatisfy the exigence of his warrant, he may make a ſecond under it for that purpoſe, although he could have taken enough upon his firſt coming on the premiſes. If there ſhould be no diſtreſs, the party may be committed by warrant of two juſtices to the common goal, there to remain without bail or mainprize, until he diſcharge the ſum at which he is aſſeſſed; and when it is intended to proceed to this extremity, the ſummons to appear before the magiſtrates ſhould be ſerved upon the defendant in perſon. But no pariſh ought to take this courſe, unleſs by way of punithment, where the defendant has fraudulently diſpoſed of his goods.

SETTLEMENTS. In treating on the origin and hiſtory of the law of ſettlements, Mr. Nolan obſerves; It is difficult to trace this law with preciſion to its original foundation. The poor, as regulated by act of parliament, were originally diſtinguiſhed into two claſſes: beggars able to work, whom it puniſhed with ſeverity as criminals; and beggars, who being unable to maintain themſelves from age or bodily infirmity, were compelled to live by the alms of charity.

The ſettlements provided for this latter claſs of unfortunate people, are eaſily followed through the ſtatute-book. The earlieſt act is the 12 R. II. c. 7., and many ſubſequent ſtatutes regulate, though imperfectly, the mode of removing vagrants to ſome place of their former inhabitancy, or to that of their birth, and alſo the proviſion to be made for the caſual or helpleſs poor.

The caſes which were decided before the paſſing of the ſtatute 13 and 14 Car. II. tend to ſhew that the obligation to relieve impotent and ſettled poor, continued not only while they remained in the pariſh, but after leaving it, until they became vagrants, or had acquired other ſettlements. But it is difficult to point out the origin of the power of removal in ſuch caſes, as it ſeems to have been exerciſed by juſtices of the peace before that act which gives it expreſsly. That of removing vagrants and common beggars was created by ſtatute. Ever ſince 14 Eliz. c. 5. perſons of this deſcription were transferred to their pariſh under paſs-warrants, which conſigned them from conſtable to conſtable, in the ſame manner as vagrants are paſſed at this day. Magiſtrates would have to determine in all caſes when they were called upon to grant relief, whether it was aſked by a perſon who was neceſſitous from caſualty, or by a beggar and vagrant. But whether the practice aroſe from a liberal interpretation of theſe ſtatutes, or crept into uſe from juſtices not having originally attended to the diſtinction pointed out by the act, but regarding every perſon aſking pariſh relief as a common beggar; or whether it originated with the magiſtrates in ſeſſions, by reaſon of their appellate juriſdiction over the pariſh rate and overſeers' accounts; or in what other mode it commenced, or to what extent it was exerciſed, is no where expreſsly laid down.

The ſtatute laſt alluded to gives a more effectual power of removing paupers than had previouſly been poſſeſſed by magiſtrates. It recites that, Whereas, by reaſon of ſome defects in the law, poor people are not reſtrained from going from one pariſh to another, and therefore to endeavour to ſettle themſelves in thoſe pariſhes where there is the beſt

beſt ſtock, the largeſt commons or waſte to build cottages, and the moſt woods for them to burn and deſtroy; and when they have conſumed it, then to another pariſh, and at laſt become rogues and vagabonds, to the great diſcouragement of pariſhes to provide ſtocks when it is liable to be devoured by ſtrangers: and enacts, that it ſhall and may be lawful, upon complaint made by the churchwardens, or overſeers of the poor of any pariſh, to any juſtice of the peace, within forty days after any ſuch perſon or perſons coming to ſettle as aforeſaid, in any tenement under the yearly value of ten pounds, for any two juſtices of the peace, whereof one to be of the quorum, of the diviſion where any perſon or perſons that are likely to be chargeable to the pariſh ſhall come to inhabit, by their warrant to remove and convey ſuch perſon or perſons to ſuch pariſh where he or they were *laſt legally* ſettled, either as a native, houſeholder, ſojourner, apprentice, or ſervant, for the ſpace of forty days at the leaſt, unleſs he or they give *ſufficient* ſecurity for the diſcharge of the ſaid pariſh, to be allowed of by the ſaid juſtices.

This act places vagrant beggars on the ſame footing with other impotent poor, in reſpect to the methods of acquiring a ſettlement; and puts it beyond doubt, that the ſettlement gained is to continue until a new one is acquired. It gives power to juſtices of peace in all caſes of removal and ſettlement, and prevents a ſettlement being acquired by the mere act of reſidence for a month, without being chargeable, as might have been done previouſly; for it enables two magiſtrates to remove not only thoſe who become chargeable before they have reſided for the ſpace of forty days, but ſuch as they ſhall in their diſcretion deem likely to become ſo, unleſs they give ſecurity for the diſcharge of the pariſh. Prior to this ſtatute, no one could be removed unleſs he were in a ſtate of vagrancy, or had become actually chargeable to ſome other place than that of his ſettlement. But this act regards all perſons of an inferior condition, who change their habitation as vagrants and vagabonds, unleſs they come to reſide upon a tenement of 10*l.* a year value. Laſtly, it gives a right of appealing to the next quarter ſeſſions, to thoſe who are aggrieved by the order.

A place of ſettlement may be defined a diſtrict maintaining its poor, to which perſons become removeable for the purpoſe of obtaining the relief given by 43 Eliz. c. 2.

The ſeveral methods of acquiring ſettlements, may be divided into two general claſſes; 1. Such as are communi-

cated without a reſidence of forty days, which may be called derivative, or natural ſettlements; and are, 1. marriage; 2. parentage; 3. birth.

2. Where a reſidence of forty days is neceſſary, which may be called acquired ſettlements; and are gained, 1. By inhabitancy as an hired ſervant; 2. as an apprentice; 3. ſerving an office; 4. where a perſon has a tenement of 10*l.* a year value; 5. where he has an eſtate; 6. where he pays a ſhare towards the public taxes or levies of the pariſh, other than as excepted by 35 Geo. III. c. 101.

On the ſubject of ſettlements theſe general rules are laid down. Firſt, A ſubſequent ſettlement always deſtroys that which is previouſly gained by the ſame perſon; and contending pariſhes are to look to this as the only means by which a ſettlement once actually gained can be defeated. A man cannot give away, or releaſe, or ſuſpend his ſettlement; for the public is concerned in it, as well as himſelf. Second, That no ſettlement can be legal which is brought about by fraud or compulſion.

MARRIAGE. Wherever a woman intermarries with a man who has obtained a known ſettlement, it is communicated to her, although ſhe has never been where it is gained. And every ſucceeding ſettlement that he acquires is in like manner transferred to her immediately. But when the huſband has no ſettlement, not being born in England or Wales, nor having acquired one during his reſidence, or which is the ſame thing, if born here, that which he had cannot be diſcovered; the wife's ſettlement is not totally deſtroyed by marriage, but remains ſuſpended during his life, or perhaps more properly during co-habitation; for if the huſband having no ſettlement, dies, or leaves his wife, and it is not known whether he is living or dead; or running away, lives ſeparate from her; or being unable to maintain her, conſent to the removal, the ſettlement ſhe had previous to marriage continues.

BIRTH. The original ſettlement of legitimate children is that which the father has at the time of their birth, and it makes no difference that the child is born in another pariſh, or that the father dies previous to the birth, or that neither he nor the child has been in the place of ſettlement ſince the latter was born. The manner in which the parental ſettlement has been acquired is equally immaterial. It may be gained by the father's own act, or derived from his father or grandfather, or any other more remote relation to whom a ſettlement is firſt traced in the direct aſcending line. But although the father's ſettlement at the time of birth

birth is the original ſettlement of his legitimate offſpring, it is ſuperſeded if the parent gains one ſubſequently, while the child continues to form a part of his family. Where the father has not a known ſettlement before his child becomes chargeable, that which the mother had previous to her marriage is communicated in the ſame manner, and ſubject to the ſame rules. But as the father's ſettlement, where he has one, muſt always fix that of his child, it is obvious that recourſe ſhould be had to the ſettlement of the father's mother, prior to that of the pauper's own mother, for that is the father's ſettlement, if *his* father have none; and upon the ſame principle, that of the father's grandfather's mother precedes that of his own mother, and ſo on to the more remote degrees of lineal anceſtry. The ſettlement which a child derives from its mother during the father's lifetime, muſt be acquired previous to her exiſting marriage, for ſhe can acquire none during coverture, except through her huſband.

But if the father die, the mother becomes the head of the family, in which event nature and the law caſt the obligation to provide for it upon her. A ſettlement therefore gained in her own right, during widowhood, is communicated to her unemancipated children, although paſt the age of nurture. But if ſhe acquire a ſettlement by another marriage, it is not gained as the head of a family, but as a ſubordinate part of ſome other, and therefore is not communicated to her former offſpring.

EMANCIPATION. There are two caſes in which the child is conſidered as being ſevered from the parent's family, without any reference to a ſeparation in fact. 1. When a child has obtained a ſettlement in its own right, that previouſly acquired from the parents is ſuperſeded, and it no longer follows one that is ſubſequently gained by them. The age at which a child is ſaid to be capable of acquiring a ſettlement by its own act, is ſeven years, at the expiration of forty days, after which it may acquire one. 2. Where it becomes the head or part of another family by marrying, that being a relation inconſiſtent with a ſubordinate ſituation in that of its parents. Thus a ſon being of full age and married, afterwards removed into another pariſh with his father, where he continued to live with him, was held not to follow a ſettlement which the father ſubſequently acquired there. But marriage ſeems neceſſary to make a child the head of a family when there is no ſeparation. An actual ſeparation is neceſſary in all other caſes; for a child may, after attaining the age of twenty-one, derive a new ſettlement

ment from its parent, provided it remain at the time of its acquirement a member of the father's family, with an unbroken continuance.

BASTARDS. An illegitimate child is ſettled in the place of its birth, as lawful children are whoſe parents have no ſettlement. From this rule there are ſome exceptions. The firſt by the common law, is where a woman with child of a baſtard is removed out of one pariſh into another, through the fraud or colluſion of its officers. In this caſe the child, whereſoever it is born, is ſettled in the pariſh from which the mother has been colluſively removed. The ſecond is, where a child is born after an order has been made for the mother's removal to ſome other pariſh. In this event, whether it is born in one of the contending pariſhes, or in ſome intermediate one, while the officers are in the act of removing, or uſing reaſonable diligence to remove the woman, it is ſettled in the pariſh againſt which judgment is given, if the order is conteſted; or in that to which the removal is made, where it acquieſces without appeal. The third exception is, where the child is born while the mother is in actual cuſtody of the law; as where ſhe is in the houſe of correction, or in the county goal: here it follows the ſettlement of the mother; or if that cannot be known, it is to be provided for in the pariſh where ſhe was apprehended. A fourth exception ſeems to be, where the child is born in a workhouſe belonging to pariſhes united, under 9 Geo. I. c. 7., and which is ſituated in a third pariſh. Here it ſhall be conſidered as ſettled in the pariſh to which the mother belongs.

There are alſo ſeveral exceptions by ſtatutes. 1. No child received in the Foudnling Hoſpital ſhall thereby gain a ſettlement in the pariſh where the hoſpital is ſituate. 2. Where a woman wandering and begging, is delivered of a child in any pariſh or place to which ſhe doth not belong; the child of which ſhe is delivered, if a baſtard, ſhall not be ſettled in the place where ſo born, nor be ſent thither by a vagrant paſs; but the ſettlement of the woman ſhall be deemed the ſettlement of the child. 3. No baſtard child, born in a lying-in hoſpital, ſhall be legally ſettled in the pariſh wherein the hoſpital is ſituated; but ſhall follow the mother's ſettlement. 4. The like rule with reſpect to baſtards born in houſes of induſtry. 5. By the act for the encouragement and relief of friendly ſocieties, it is enacted, that every child which ſhall be born a baſtard in any pariſh, townſhip, or place, during the mother's reſidence therein, under the authority of this act, ſhall have and be deemed

to have the ſame ſettlement which the mother has, or is entitled to at the time of the birth of ſuch child. 6. Where an order of removal has been obtained for the purpoſe of removing an unmarried woman with child, and it ſhall be ſuſpended on account of her ſickneſs or infirmity, and during ſuch ſuſpenſion ſhe is delivered of a baſtard child, ſuch child is to be ſettled in the pariſh, or place in which was the legal ſettlement of the mother at the time of her delivery. The only proof required to eſtabliſh this kind of ſettlement is, that the pauper was actually born within the pariſh or townſhip. This may be effected either by the teſtimony of the parent's relations, or any other perſon acquainted with the fact.

Settlement by Hiring and Service. The firſt ſtatute which required a further qualification to confer a ſettlement beyond mere reſidence, as a ſervant for the ſpace of forty days, was 3 W. III. c. 11. ſ. 6. It enacts, that if any *unmarried* perſon, not having *child or children*, ſhall be lawfully *hired* into any pariſh or town for one year, *ſuch ſervice* ſhall be adjudged and deemed a good ſettlement therein. Some inconveniences having ariſen from the conſtruction of this act, a clauſe was introduced in 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30., which provides, that no perſon ſo hired ſhall have a ſettlement "unleſs he continues and abides in the ſame ſervice for a whole year."

The benefit of a ſettlement is therefore given to thoſe who are unmarried, and have no child, and under this ſtatute it has been held, that the period at which the ſtatute requires the party to be unmarried, is the time when the contract is made. Therefore, if a ſervant marries during ſervice, or even after the hiring, but before his year begins, it will not prevent his ſettlement. Children are adjudged to mean, ſuch as, by following their parent's ſettlement, might become chargeable to that pariſh in which one may be acquired under the new ſervitude. So that, if legitimate children are emancipated at the time from which the parent engages to ſerve, he may gain a ſettlement. But they muſt be emancipated at the commencement of his contract.

With reſpect to the hiring, the following are the principal rules to be obſerved; 1. there muſt be a contract; 2. it muſt be a contract for ſervitude, and intended only as ſuch; 3. it muſt be an intire contract for at leaſt a complete year's proſpective ſervice; 4. it muſt contain no ſpecial exception, exempting the ſervant from his maſter's controul during its continuance. The hiring muſt be for a

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bonâ fide ſervice, and if it be ſo, no circumſtance of implication will vitiate it. But there muſt be one entire contract for a complete year's ſervice. Succeſſive hirings, or ſuch as follow each other in uninterrupted ſucceſſion, without an intervening interval of time, if *ſeverally* leſs than a year, are inſufficient to confer a ſettlement, although they amount to a much longer period of ſervice, when taken together. Thus an hiring for two ſucceſſive periods of eleven months each; or for two ſucceſſive half years; or from May-tide to Lady-day, and a new agreement on Lady-day to ſerve till the May-tide enſuing is inſufficient. The hiring muſt alſo be proſpective. The terms uſed in the ſtatute expreſs futurity, and no part of the year for which the agreement is made, ſhould be elapſed at the time when it is entered into. It may be for a year, to commence at ſome future time, as a week or a fortnight after the hiring; and the ſervice need not commence in fact at the time when the ſervant's year commences, inaſmuch as it may be diſpenſed with by the maſter. But where the agreement is made ſo that by-gone time is to be calculated as part of the year, and included in computing it, this is called a retroſpective hiring, and no ſettlement can be gained by ſervice under it. Thus where a ſervant went into a place upon liking, and *after* he had lived there eight weeks, his maſter hired him for a year, *to commence from the beginning of the ſaid eight weeks*, it was a retroſpective hiring. There are many inſtances, however, in which no particular period is mentioned for the continuance of ſervice; ſuch caſes have been diſtinguiſhed by the appellation of general hirings. When the contract is thus ſilent, and nothing appears upon the face of the tranſaction from whence its duration can be deduced, the law, in conformity to the ſeveral ſtatutes which regulate the ſervice, eſpecially of ſervants in huſbandry, infers that it is made for a year.

The term of ſervice required by the ſtatute is one whole year; and therefore a ſervice which is but a day or two ſhort of a year, does not ſatisfy the ſtatute, nor confer a ſettlement. The performance of ſervice may be either *actual* or *conſtructive*. Where the ſervant continues perſonally to fulfil the duties of his ſtation towards his maſter in the terms of his contract, without intermiſſion, it is actual ſervice. Where he does not perform theſe duties, but they are diſpenſed with, the ſervice is *conſtructive*. The law inveſts the maſter with authority, to enforce performance of the ſervant's contract; but having gone thus far, it leaves him to exact or remit the ſervice as ſuits his convenience or diſcretion.

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He may compel his ſervant to work at all lawful ſeaſons, or ſuffer him to remain unemployed. If he ſhould prove remiſs and negligent, the maſter may puniſh remiſſneſs, and enforce attention; but this idleneſs, whether permitted or otherwiſe, has no effect on the ſettlement, whilſt he continues in the ſervice, that being all which the ſtatute requires. The diſtinctions between a diſpenſation from ſervice, and a diſſolution of the contract have given riſe to many deciſions in which the circumſtances of each caſe have been conſidered with much nicety.

Two points may be noticed in this place.

1. By 37 Geo. III. ſ. 22., the inrolment of a ſervant as a militia-man, by virtue of that act, ſhall not reſcind the contract, or vacate the employment between him and his maſter, unleſs the militia in which he is inrolled ſhall be embodied or called out by his majeſty, or ordered ſo to be, in purſuance of the act, or unleſs he ſhall leave the ſervice for the purpoſe of being trained and exerciſed for the ſpace of twenty days, in purſuance of the act, and ſhall not return to the ſame ſervice at the end of ſuch twenty days, or as ſoon after as reaſonably may be; allowing an abatement from his wages in proportion to his abſence from the ſervice, to be ſettled by a juſtice of the peace.

2. If the maſter applies to a juſtice to have his ſervant diſcharged, and his cauſe of complaint does not warrant it, the ſervant's diſmiſſal againſt his conſent, will not vitiate the ſervice, where the magiſtrate makes no order, although he ſhould be of opinion that it is a valid cauſe of diſcharge. On the other hand, if the maſter and ſervant voluntarily go before a magiſtrate, and the latter is diſcharged, it amounts to a ſolemn diſſolution of the contract.

And it is to be obſerved, that although 3 & 4 W. III. requires an hiring, and 8 & 9 W. III. ſervice for a year, yet the ſervice need not be performed under the yearly hiring. They muſt be co-extenſive in duration, but need not be contemporaneous; for the ſtatutes do not expreſsly declare that the ſervice ſhall be for that year for which the ſervant is hired, or even for a whole year afterwards. Service therefore under a yearly hiring, will connect with ſervice under other hirings, but ſubject to certain rules and reſtrictions. This conſtruction was given to the ſtatutes ſoon after the 8 & 9 W. III. paſſed. It was founded on a ſtrict interpretation of their proviſions, which the Court would not carry beyond the letter, from an opinion that they were reſtrictive of the ſubject's liberty, and in derogation of a

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ommon law birthright, and that the power given to parish officers ſhould be confined to narrow limits, ſince the dread or ſuſpicion of anticipated burthens, by reaſon of future poverty, might form the ſole reaſon for removing the induſtrious poor. But judges, who have held themſelves bound by the authority of this deciſion, have queſtioned its propriety. Indeed, the deſign of the ſtatute ſeems to point to a contrary conſtruction; and it has been ſtated, that the place of ſettlement can be of no conſequence to the pauper, ſince he is equally entitled to ſupport wherever it may be. But as the law ſtands ſettled, if there is an hiring from March to Michaelmas, and then an hiring for a year, ſervice under the firſt hiring may be connected with ſervice from Michaelmas to the enſuing April, under the year's hiring, and confers a ſettlement, although the ſervant leave his place in April, and never fulfil his yearly contract. This is put as one of ſeveral parallel inſtances to be met with in the books, and which differ from each other in accidental particulars only. The mere circumſtances of the number and duration of the hirings are immaterial to the connection of ſervices, provided one is for a year. The reſt may be for ſucceſſive years, or months, or even weeks. Neither is it neceſſary that the ſervices to be performed under each ſhould be of the ſame kind. It may be as an out-door ſervant under one, and a family ſervant under the other. He may be employed, firſt, to milk and plough; and ſecondly, as a carter. But to gain the benefit of this connective hiring the ſervant muſt, at the laſt time of engaging, be in the ſame ſituation that he was at the firſt: that is, unmarried, and without children.

Service performed with different maſters is an abiding in the ſame ſervice, and confers a ſettlement where the contract continues unaltered in other reſpects. A ſervant hired for a year, ſerved about half of it, when his maſter died. The executor aſked him, if he was willing to ſerve him for the remainder of the year, according to the bargain made between the teſtator and him. The pauper aſſented, and ſerved him in another pariſh, where the executor lived, during the remainder of the year, when he received his wages. It was held that he gained a ſettlement in the executor's pariſh. For the act of parliament does not require the ſervice to be the ſame as to place or perſon, but only a continuance of the ſame ſervice. This is a continuance of the ſame ſervice and not a new contract. The contract was not diſſolved by the maſter's death. The ſervant was obliged to ſerve the executor, and the executor to

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pay him. But to conſtitute the ſame ſervice when the maſter is changed, the original contract muſt remain If that is diſſolved, ſervice with a new maſter under a new contract, though entered into before the expiration of the original year with the firſt maſter's conſent, who pays the year's wages, is not the ſame ſervice, nor will it connect with that performed under the original hiring ſo as to confer a ſettlement.

The reſidence to gain a ſettlement muſt be in a pariſh or townſhip having overſeers; the ſervant muſt reſide forty days in that place where the ſettlement is claimed; and he muſt remain under the obligation of his yearly contract during ſome part of ſuch reſidence.

The laws which provide for the maintenance and removal of the indigent poor, extend only to pariſhes and townſhips for which overſeers are appointed. No ſettlement therefore can be gained either by reſidence as a ſervant, or in any other capacity in extra-parochial places, where there are no overſeers.

As to the time and place of reſidence. He may either reſide in one pariſh or townſhip during his entire ſervitude, or in ſeveral. If he reſide in different places, he may inhabit, partly where a ſettlement is to be acquired, and partly where it can not. The reſidence alſo may be either during forty ſucceſſive days, or for the ſame period at unconnected intervals. As a reſidence for forty days confers a ſettlement, it follows that if a ſervant reſide for diſtinct periods of forty days in different pariſhes, his ſettlement floats during the continuance of his year, and is determined by the laſt reſidence of forty days. For each reſidence for that period confers a ſettlement conditionally, and as a latter ſettlement ſuperſedes the former; it is the reſidence for the laſt forty days of the year's ſervice which confers the ſettlement.

But it ſometimes happens that the ſervant may live in one pariſh, and his ſervice be performed in another. The ſtatutes of William refer only to the pariſh or townſhip in which the ſervice is done, regarding it as the place of ſettlement. It muſt be owned that there ſeems ſome little anomaly in the law, which connects every other requiſite for gaining this ſpecies of ſettlement with the pariſh in which the ſervant works, and yet makes the ſettlement depend upon the place where he ſleeps. The reaſon ſeems to be, that the latter is where he inhabits; and inhabitancy, both in former ſtatutes, and in 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12. is made the criterion of ſettlement. To ſuch a nicety has this

this rule been carried, that where a houſe ſtood in two pariſhes, and the maſter lay in pariſh A, where all the ſervice was done, but the ſervant ſlept in pariſh B, the ſettlement was gained in B. Neither is the maſter's knowledge or conſent to the ſervant's ſleeping away from his houſe material. If the ſervant marry during ſervice, and ſleep with his wife in another pariſh, unknown to his maſter, he is ſettled there. And whether he ſleeps there for ſucceſſive nights, or at intervals, his ſettlement is in the pariſh where he lodges the laſt night, if he has ſlept there forty in all. Upon the ſame principle, if he ſhould ſleep the laſt night in a pariſh where he had firſt ſerved under his contract of hiring, and has reſided there forty days during the entire ſervice, he is ſettled there.

The ſervant's ſituation and condition during reſidence, is in moſt caſes immaterial. It is of no importance whether he dwell on land or water; or for what purpoſe the maſter comes into the pariſh, whether for a permanent reſidence, or a temporary ſojournment. Thus, if the ſervant ſpend the laſt forty days of his ſervice at a watering-place, where his maſter went for the purpoſe of bathing, or at any other public place, where he is a temporary reſident, ſojourner, or viſitor, he gains a ſettlement by inhabiting there. Neither does it make any difference that the maſter has neither ſettlement, nor real property in the pariſh where his ſervant reſides, and does not live there. The only diſtinction taken on the ſubject is, that if a ſervant live apart from his maſter from diſeaſe and diſability, he ſhall not be ſettled in the pariſh in which he dwells during illneſs, but in that where he reſided for the laſt forty days of his effective ſervice.

Settlement by Apprenticeship. Nothing more was required to ſettle an apprentice, by 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12. than a reſidence of forty days. The 3 Will. & Mar. c. 11. exempts him from the neceſſity created by different ſtatutes, that he ſhould give notice of his inhabitancy. It enacts, that "If any perſon ſhall be bound an apprentice by indenture, and inhabit in any town or pariſh, ſuch binding and inhabitation ſhall be adjudged a good ſettlement, though no ſuch notice in writing be delivered and publiſhed." An apprentice is not encumbered, like an hired ſervant, with the condition, that he ſhall be unmarried, and without unemancipated children when he makes the contract. It is ſufficient if he is *bound* as an apprentice, and inhabits the town or pariſh in that capacity. But as he is enabled to acquire a ſettlement by theſe means, he is fettered from

gaining one in a capacity which is inconſiſtent with the relation he has covenanted to ſtand in toward his maſter. He is not capable of contracting the relation of ſervant (or apprentice) to any other maſter, until the end of the term for which he was bound. But the maſter and apprentice may put an end to the apprenticeſhip by mutual conſent, and then the latter may gain a ſettlement by hiring and ſervice (or under a new indenture of apprenticeſhip) with any other maſter.

Theſe rules depend upon the incapacity to make a new contract while the indentures continue, and reſpect an apprentice regularly and effectively bound. But although the parties intend a contract of apprenticeſhip, it will not enure as ſuch, if defective in ſubſtance or in form; and where a contract clearly appears to be intended as a contract of apprenticeſhip, and not as one of hiring and ſervice as a ſervant, it ſhall not, if defective as a contract of apprenticeſhip, be converted into a contract of hiring and ſervice, ſo as to gain the party a ſettlement as a ſervant.

Apprentices are bound, 1ſt, By voluntary conſent, without the intervention of pariſh officers. 2d. By virtue of the power given to pariſh officers by 43 Eliz. c. 2. in which caſe they are called pariſh apprentices. The 3 Will. & Mar. c. 11. ſ. 5. requires, in conformity to 5 Eliz. c. 4., that the binding ſhall be by indentures, i. e. by deed *indented*. But this unimportant requiſite is rendered unneceſſary by 31 Geo. II. c. 11., which makes any deed, though not indented, equally valid for this purpoſe. The ſettlement is not however prevented by the maſter's neglect to execute, provided the apprentice is bound; whether a pariſh or a voluntary apprentice. So likewiſe, if an infant is not bound for that time which the ſtatute directs him to be, it does not affect the ſettlement; for it only renders the indentures voidable at the party's election.

The pariſh officers muſt be parties to the pariſh indentures, which require the aſſent of two juſtices, or the binding is void. But the aſſent of the juſtices is only neceſſary when the minor is put out by the pariſh. Indentures of apprenticeſhip muſt be properly ſtamped. Theſe, where the apprentice is bound out by the pariſh, pay a duty of ſixpence; others according to the amount of the apprentice-fee.

It is alſo to be obſerved that a ſettlement may be gained as an hired ſervant, although the object of the agreement and ſervice be to learn a trade. As the parties may lawfully enter into their engagement, the particular nature of the

agreement is to be collected from their intention at the time of making it.

The Court of King's Bench has no authority to direct that an apprentice ſhall be diſcharged from his indentures, but a deed of apprenticeſhip may be diſcharged in four ways, beſides natural efflux of time.

By application of either party to two juſtices of peace, or to the court of quarter ſeſſions, according to the powers given by the 5 Eliz. c. 4., and 20 Geo. II. c. 19. An order of diſcharge may be made upon the application of either party; "for an apprentice may be diſcharged from a bad maſter, and a bad apprentice from his maſter." But the ſeſſions cannot diſcharge without ſhewing ſome cauſe, which muſt be ſet forth in their order. And a power of ordering reſtitution of money given with the apprentice may be exerciſed upon diſcharging him, as incident to the juriſdiction.

Apprenticeſhip being a perſonal truſt between the maſter and ſervant, is determinable by the death of either. But indentures are not cancelled by the maſter's failure in his buſineſs and running away.

Perſons who have been bound to ſerve beyond the age of twenty-one, may elect to vacate their indentures upon attaining that age, unleſs bound to ſerve beyond it under the authority of an act of parliament. But the apprentice muſt regularly declare his intention to do ſo.

The moſt uſual way of diſcharging indentures is by mutual conſent. If the apprentice is an infant, his maſter cannot diſcharge them by his conſent alone. But it may be done with his father's, or any perſon having the legal ſuperintendance of his minority. In the caſe of a pariſh apprentice under age, the indenture cannot be diſcharged by his conſent, though his father concur. As he is bound out by the pariſh officers under a ſpecial authority, they ought to be conſulted, and give their conſent to his diſcharge, otherwiſe the whole policy of the 43 Eliz. might be defeated. But ſuch aſſent is unneceſſary after he attains the age of twenty-one; at which time the maſter and apprentice may cancel the indentures by mutual agreement. Yet if an attempt be made to cancel them before that time, it is not rendered valid merely by the apprentice's coming of age, but the indentures continue in force, unleſs the parties enter into a new agreement. In order to diſcharge indentures, it is neceſſary, not only that the parties ſhould agree to ſeparate, but that the indentures ſhould be actually cancelled, or given up; or at leaſt, ſomething done which the

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law conſiders equivalent, ſuch as paying and receiving a ſum of money for which a receipt is given, expreſſing the conſideration. But unleſs the indentures are actually cancelled or given up, or the maſter agrees unconditionally to do ſo for a valuable conſideration, they muſt be conſidered as continuing to ſubſiſt. And a mere agreement, without valuable conſideration, to diſcharge the apprentice from the obligation of ſerving his maſter, does not put an end to the indentures.

To gain a ſettlement by an apprentice, the performance of actual ſervice is not the thing material: it is the reſidence, the inhabitancy of an apprentice in a town or pariſh for forty days. But although the extent of the ſervice may be immaterial, the apprentice gains no ſettlement, unleſs he continues under the controul of his indentures during ſuch reſidence, liable, not only in law but in fact, to perform the duties preſcribed by his covenants. Service under indentures may be either, 1. with the original maſter; 2. with another perſon by his conſent: but to gain a ſettlement by ſervice with a third perſon, 1ſt, the conſent muſt be direct and explicit; 2d. to ſerve a particular perſon; or 3d. if more general, it muſt be for the immediate benefit of the maſter; 4th. it muſt be given by the maſter under a conviction, that the indentures are ſtill in force.

A ſervant cannot gain a ſettlement until his year of ſervice is complete. It floats undetermined until that expires, and he is then ſettled in that pariſh or town wherein he has ſerved the laſt forty days, capable of conferring a ſettlement. But forty days' reſidence and ſervice, under indentures, confer an abſolute ſettlement, which no ſubſequent diſqualification by certificate, or otherwiſe, can defeat. If the apprentice reſide ſo long in one pariſh, although the indentures are cancelled on the forty-firſt day after their execution, he has acquired a ſettlement. It is rightly obſerved by Dr. Burn, therefore, "that an apprentice may gain as many ſettlements as there are ſpaces of forty days in the term of his apprenticeſhip." This is the principal diſtinction between reſidence as a ſervant and as an apprentice. The ſettlement of an apprentice, like that of a ſervant, is where he has laſt reſided forty complete days. He is ſettled, finally, therefore, where he ſleeps the laſt night in his condition of an apprentice, provided he has reſided there forty days altogether.

SETTLEMENT BY SERVING AN OFFICE. This ſpecies of ſettlement depends upon 3 & 4 W. III. c. 11. ſ. 6., which enacts, "that if any perſon, who ſhall come to inhabit in

ny town or pariſh, ſhall, for himſelf, or on his own account, execute any public annual office or charge in the ſaid town or pariſh, during one whole year, then he ſhall be adjudged and deemed to have a legal ſettlement in the ſame, though no ſuch notice in writing be delivered and publiſhed, as is hereby before required." Perſons who reſide under a certificate, may acquire a ſettlement by 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11., if they "ſhall execute ſome annual office in ſuch pariſh, being *legally placed* in ſuch office."

The office which is to confer a ſettlement under theſe ſtatutes muſt be public, but need not be parochial. Not only thoſe of pariſh clerk, ſexton, and churchwarden, but alſo a warden for the borough, a tithing-man, petty conſtable or borſholder, collector of the land tax, and duties on births and burials, created by 6 & 7 W. III. c. 6., are officers within the act. Likewiſe the office of bailiff, or ale-taſter for a borough; where it conſiſted in *inſpecting* weights and meaſures within the borough, and warning the jury to ſerve at the court leet there; that of ale-taſter of a borough; and a hog-ringer *for the pariſh*; the duty being to attend the open commons, to ſee that *all* hogs turned thereupon are rung, and to impound ſuch as are not, the officer receiving one penny for impounding, and ſixpence for ringing each hog, being an office of great antiquity, and ſerviceable to the inhabitants of the pariſh, have been adjudged to confer ſettlements when duly executed.

But a perſon nominated by the rector, and licenſed to perform the office of curate in the pariſh and pariſh church by the biſhop, who aſſigned him a yearly ſtipend, although he performed the duties ſix years, was held not to have ſerved an annual public office or charge under the act. So the maſter of a workhouſe where nothing was ſaid, either at the time of his appointment or afterwards, as for the time which he was to hold his ſituation, but he conceived he might at any time be diſmiſſed at a quarter's notice. But where the ſeſſion ſtated in their caſe that the pauper was legally appointed governor of the workhouſe in the pariſh, at an annual ſalary, and that the ſaid office of governor is a public annual office; the court were of opinion, that the facts ſtated precluded diſcuſſion how far it was in the act, the ſeſſions having found that the pauper ſerved a public annual office in the pariſh to which he was legally appointed. The office or charge muſt be a public inſtitution. The exerciſe of a private employment confers no ſettlement, although ever ſo notorious in the pariſh.

As it is unneceſſary that the office ſhould be of a parochial nature, it is equally ſo that the appointment ſhould be in the pariſhioners. Thus, the collector of duties on births and burials appointed by the crown; a conſtable put in by the leet; a tithing-man by the ſteward of a leet, or by the jurors; the clerk of the pariſh appointed by the parſon; a ſexton elected at a veſtry by the proprietors of ſeats in the church or chapel, have been held to acquire ſettlements by ſerving theſe offices. The office muſt be annual; that is, the perſon appointed into it muſt be liable to execute the duties for a year at leaſt. But it is not neceſſary that the office ſhould be ſtrictly annual, i. e. limited in duration to a year. Freehold offices for life, as of ſexton, or pariſh clerk, are public annual offices within the act.

The office muſt exiſt within the pariſh where the party reſides (but it may extend beyond it). Thus, a conſtable of a city, conſiſting of ſeveral pariſhes, the duties of the office being to be executed through all parts of the city, gains a ſettlement in the pariſh where he reſides. The warden of a borough, exerciſing the office in the pariſh where he claimed a ſettlement, and in ſome others, gains a ſettlement. And the office need not extend over the whole pariſh. Thus, a tithing-man, whoſe tithing did not extend over the entire pariſh, but comprehended the part wherein he reſided. The bailiff, or ale-taſter of a borough, which borough was not one fifth or ſixth part of the pariſh, acquired ſettlements.

The ſervice muſt be for one whole year, and it ſeems as if there muſt be a reſidence of forty days at leaſt in the pariſh in which the office is executed and the ſettlement claimed.

SETTLEMENT ON A TENEMENT OF TEN POUNDS A YEAR. This kind of ſettlement depends upon 13 & 14 Car. II., which confines the power of removal to caſes where perſons "come to ſettle in any tenement under the yearly value of ten pounds." The act ſpeaks of the annual value, without mention of the inhabitant's eſtate or intereſt, and at firſt view ſeems to require that all tenements which give a ſettlement ſhould be of the yearly value of ten pounds, without reference to the nature or manner of acquiring the eſtate, whether freehold, copyhold, leaſehold, or a minor intereſt. The judges entertained originally ſome doubt, whether this was not the true conſtruction. It has however been long ſettled, that where the inhabitant has a freehold or copyhold intereſt, the yearly value of the tenement is immaterial. And it is ſo, likewiſe, where a leaſe-

hold intereſt devolves upon the party by operation of law. The rule extends to leaſeholds purchaſed for valuable conſideration. For before 9 Geo. I. c. 7. every body that came into a pariſh, and made *any purchaſe whatever*, was irremoveable.

There are two kinds of eſtates, therefore, in which the annual value of the tenement is immaterial. 1ſt, Freehold or copyhold. 2d. Leaſehold intereſts, "which devolve upon the party by operation of law," or are acquired by purchaſe.

The preſent ſpecies of ſettlement ariſes from the poſſeſſion of a tenement of the annual value of 10*l.*, when obtained by ſome other than the preceding means. It is generally conſidered as acquired by *renting* a tenement of the yearly value of 10*l.*, not only becauſe the occupation is uſually under a contract to pay rent, and the credit given to the tenant, and his ability to pay 10*l.* per annum, have been deemed reaſons for this exception in the ſtatute, and the ground of the ſettlement: but alſo perhaps from the 9 & 10 W. III. c. 30. having made the taking the leaſe of a tenement of that value neceſſary towards obtaining a ſettlement by a perſon reſiding under a certificate. But lawful poſſeſſion of a tenement, of ſufficient value, confers a ſettlement, although the occupier is exempt from paying rent. It ſeems therefore to include caſes of voluntary donation, or permiſſive poſſeſſion, where the occupier has no intereſt of ſufficient permanency to entitle him to acquire a ſettlement by eſtate.

The general definition of the word tenement is of great extent, compriſing every thing which may be *holden*, provided it be of a permanent nature; whether it be of a ſubſtantial and ſenſible, or of an unſubſtantial, ideal kind; but in the conſtruction of the poor laws it has received many explanations and reſtrictions, too minute to be introduced here. As to how far the ſettlement is affected by the local ſituation of the tenement, with reference to the pariſh in which the ſettlement is ſought, or whether two or more, when occupied together, come within the meaning of a tenement under 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12., it is decided that an entire tenement of the annual value of 10*l.* and upwards, ſituated in different pariſhes, will confer a ſettlement where the occupier reſides, although he has not the value of 10*l.* a-year in either, or leſs than 10*l.* in the place of reſidence, and conſiderably more in the adjoining pariſh. A perſon may likewiſe occupy, at the ſame time, two or more tenements, ſituate in the ſame, or in different pariſhes, and

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diſtinct tenements, when of ſufficient conjunct value, are within the ſtatute, and whether ſituated in the ſame, or in different pariſhes, or taken at different times, and of different landlords, or held by diſtinct titles, as by renting part, and holding part in right of a wife, they give a ſettlement. Alſo it makes no difference, if the tenements are of diſtinct kinds, as a houſe, a meadow, and a cattle gate, a meſſuage, and the aftermath of a meadow. No more is neceſſary, but that the party ſhould be a lawful occupier to the yearly value of 10*l.*, during a reſidence of 40 days.

The ſettlement depends upon the tenements being of the annual *value* of 10*l.*, and not upon the amount of the rent, where rent is paid. "If a man hire a houſe at a ſmall rent, and pay a fine, yet, if the houſe be worth 10*l.* per annum, it makes a ſettlement." But rent is the fair criterion of value, unleſs the tenement is ſhewn to be worth more or leſs; and the annual value is alone material. If it be worth 10*l.* a year, and a tenant occupy five months, paying 4*l.*, he gains a ſettlement. And the value may be calculated without deducting pariſh rates and charges. Neither is the worth at the time when the tenant enters material, provided it becomes ſufficient during any year of his occupation. But it muſt be actually worth 10*l.*; a mere ſpeculative or potential value does not ſatisfy the ſtatute; and nothing is to be conſidered but the worth of the tenement itſelf, without reference to that of any perſonal chattels upon it. The value of ſtock on a tenement is not material. But it is otherwiſe where the value of the land is raiſed by the amount of things erected thereon, or which are ſo connected with the land, as to fall (in legal contemplation,) within the deſcription of a tenement.

Where a tenement is taken, or occupied jointly by two, and is of the value of 20*l.* a year, both may gain a ſettlement, for the moiety occupied by each is of the value of 10*l.* per annum. But where a tenement is occupied by two jointly, and is under 20*l.* a-year in value, neither can acquire one; and this not only where the tenants, after taking the farm jointly, pay their rents ſeverally, divide the produce of the land between them, and ſtint their paſtures equally, by their ſeveral flocks; but alſo, where they jointly hire and occupy the houſe and land, and jointly till and ſow it, and jointly pay their rent.

Where a ſettlement is claimed by a tenement of 10*l.* per annum value, nothing further is required, as to the occupation, than that the party hold poſſeſſion as tenant by lawful means. The ſeſſions have no occaſion to go into the title

of the leſſor at all, nor into the conditions upon which the perſon occupies. And as it is immaterial whether the occupier pay rent, it muſt of courſe be ſo, where he agrees to pay for his occupation in kind; as by the dung of his cattle; or by ſervice inſtead of rent; as by keeping three highway gates in repair; by holding a houſe and ground in conſequence of his being appointed, and ſerving as herd to ſeveral perſons having a right of common on a large extenſive common or waſte. It is alſo immaterial whether the payment of the rent is guaranteed to the landlord by ſome other perſon, or whether credit is only given to the tenant for part of the rent, or whether he is rated for the premiſes, or whether at the time he commences the occupation, he is receiving pariſh relief from ſome other pariſh, if done without fraud. So likewiſe it is immaterial, that having contracted to pay rent, he is unable to pay it. The uſe alſo, and time for which the tenement is taken are unimportant, provided there is an occupation of forty days. Taking land from Candlemas to Michaelmas, for growing potatoes, or from June to Ladyday following, or a room by the week, is ſufficient. And it ſeems to make no difference, that the party takes it for the purpoſe of gaining a ſettlement, if done without fraud.

If a man continue tenant, it is immaterial whether he have ſtock ſufficient for the premiſes when he enters thereon, if there is no fraud; and it is equally ſo, although he keeps neither ſtock nor effects upon them. He need not occupy them himſelf, and if he let the poſſeſſion to another, it will not prevent his ſettlement.

In order to gain a ſettlement by occupying a tenement of 10*l.* per annum, there muſt be a reſidence of forty days, either on the premiſes, or at leaſt in the pariſh where ſome part of them lies. But it is enough if he dwell where part of the tenement lies; he need not reſide upon any part of what he takes. The party muſt ſtand in the relation of tenant to the property during the forty days' reſidence. A wife therefore cannot acquire a ſettlement by reſidence in her huſband's lifetime, on a tenement taken by him; neither can her reſidence, as ſuch, be coupled with ſubſequent reſidence as a widow. Reſidence muſt be in the pariſh in which the tenement lies. But if the party has a tenement, or tenements of ſufficient value, ſituated in different pariſhes, and has reſided in both, he is ſettled where he ſlept the laſt night of his occupation, provided he has ſlept there forty nights in all. And it makes no difference that the tenement in that pariſh is of the leſſer value, or only an occaſional reſidence

ſidence taken for a particular purpoſe, and that the party's regular home, and the reſidence of his family, is in the other pariſh.

SETTLEMENT BY ESTATE. An eſtate is defined by Sir William Blackſtone to ſignify ſuch intereſt as the tenant has in lands, tenements, or hereditaments. The nature of the thing, or property, out of which the intereſt which is to confer a ſettlement muſt ariſe, does not ſeem to have been expreſsly defined. The reported caſes generally reſpect ſettlements by eſtate in land, and it is no where directly conſidered, whether a ſettlement can be acquired by an eſtate in a tenement, as that word has been explained under 13 & 14 Car. II., or in the more extenſive denomination of property, called an hereditament. The principle upon which theſe ſettlements are founded, viz. that the party ſhall not be removed from his own, but is entitled to the care of his property, goes beyond eſtates in land, and ſeems to extend this right to all intereſts in things immoveable, ſituate within a town or pariſh, which, as the party cannot take with him to the place of his ſettlement, he muſt be allowed to remain where they are, for the purpoſe of ſuperintending them. But the intereſt muſt iſſue out of the realty locally ſituated in the pariſh where the ſettlement is fought.

An eſtate or intereſt in things real is affected by various qualities and circumſtances. As 1ſt, The nature of the tenure. But this does not affect a ſettlement. It may be acquired by an eſtate in lands, held in frank tenure, or by copyhold. 2d. The duration of the eſtate, which ſeems likewiſe immaterial, if it is ſufficient to enſure a reſidence of forty days. It may be either a freehold eſtate in fee, or for life, or a copyhold in fee, or for life, or a leaſehold intereſt determinable on lives, or years. Even a tenancy from year to year, when acquired by proper means, as alſo the right which the widow has under Magna Charta, c. 7., to continue forty days upon her huſband's land until her dower is aſſigned, are intereſts ſufficiently permanent to confer a ſettlement. But the intereſt muſt be of ſufficient permanency to render the party irremoveable during his forty days of reſidence. A tenant at will cannot acquire a ſettlement as ſuch, unleſs his tenement is of the annual value of 10*l.*, when it ranks under a different ſpecies of ſettlement.

The great principle upon which this ſpecies of ſettlement is founded is, that a perſon cannot be removed from *his own*. The chief queſtion therefore in this part of the law of ſettlement,

ment, reſpects the means by which property becomes a man's own, or, in other words, his title to the eſtate.

The methods of acquiring property are uſually divided into two kinds.

1. By deſcent, or hereditary ſucceſſion, which is the title whereby a man on the death of his anceſtor acquires his eſtate by right of repreſentation as his heir at law.

2. By purchaſe, which, taken in its largeſt and moſt extenſive ſenſe, is thus defined by Littleton: the poſſeſſion of lands and tenements which a man hath by his own act or agreement, and not by deſcent from any of his anceſtors or kindred. In this ſenſe it is contradiſtinguiſhed from acquiſition by right of blood, and includes every other method of coming to an eſtate, except by inheritance.

But this diſtinction is ſcarcely of further uſe in the law of ſettlement, than to diſtinguiſh between the legal import of the word *purchaſe*, and that more limited ſenſe in which it is uſed in the 9 Geo. I. c. 7. ſ. 5.

An eſtate to which the party is entitled by deſcent, will always confer a ſettlement, without regard either to the annual or total value of the intereſt.

An eſtate acquired by purchaſe alſo confers a ſettlement, except in certain caſes. Where the ſettlement is claimed by eſtate, the annual value of the property is immaterial, but the price given for the intereſt is rendered important by 9 Geo. I. c. 7. ſ. 5., which enacts, "that no perſon ſhall acquire any ſettlement, by virtue of any purchaſe of an eſtate or intereſt when the conſideration for the purchaſe doth not amount to thirty pounds, *bonâ fide* paid, for any longer or further time than ſuch perſon or perſons ſhall inhabit in ſuch eſtate, and ſhall then be liable to be removed to his laſt legal ſettlement, before the ſaid purchaſe or inhabitancy therein."

This ſtatute, however, does not extend to conveyances purely voluntary. Neither does it make any difference that the eſtate is conveyed from natural love and affection by the wife's father to the huſband. So alſo, if the conſideration is of a mixed nature, being partly for a ſum of money (inadequate to the worth of the eſtate) and partly for natural love and affection, it is not a pecuniary purchaſe within the act. But if a monied conſideration, although ever ſo ſmall, is the ſole foundation of the grant, it is to be conſidered as a purchaſe within the ſtatute, and not as a voluntary gift.

An intereſt acquired by deviſe confers a ſettlement. So alſo an executor who is poſſeſſed of an eſtate from year to

year

year under a will, gains a ſettlement by entry and reſidence, although he has not proved the will. So alſo a ſufficient eſtate is gained in a term of years, by taking out letters of adminiſtration. Alſo a huſband may acquire a ſettlement by poſſeſſion of an eſtate, which comes to him by marriage in right of his wife; but if the eſtate was originally purchaſed by the huſband for leſs than thirty pounds, and ſettled after marriage in truſt to the wife's ſeparate uſe, he cannot gain a ſettlement by reaſon of the equitable eſtate veſted in his wife. And if huſband and wife are joint purchaſers of an eſtate for a leſs ſum than thirty pounds, the ſurvivor is a purchaſer within 9 Geo. I. c. 7., and does not acquire a ſettlement. An undiſturbed poſſeſſion for twenty years is in itſelf ſufficient to acquire a ſettlement, and the mode how the occupier came into poſſeſſion is not material, whether by right or by wrong. And it ſeems that the court does not require that ſtrict ſtatutory title by adverſe poſſeſſion of twenty years, which is neceſſary in queſtions of title in ejectment. But they will preſume a conveyance to legalize the poſſeſſion in caſes of long and uninterrupted enjoyment, unleſs the contrary appears. A ſettlement may alſo be gained by the poſſeſſion of an equitable intereſt, ſubject to the ſame rules as a legal eſtate. And if the object be merely to ſecure money, it is in ſubſtance the ſame thing, whether the conveyance be in the form of an abſolute diſpoſition in truſt, or of a mortgage. It is likewiſe immaterial whether the party has a beneficial intereſt in the eſtate or not: a mere truſtee may acquire a ſettlement, for nobody can take the eſtate from him, and it is ſufficient that he reſide in the pariſh forty days, and cannot be removed from it. As to the number and connexion of the tenants, it forms no conſideration in the queſtion of ſettlement; they may be tenants in coparcenary, joint-tenants, or tenants in common. A tenant in common of an eſtate of inheritance, may acquire a ſettlement; as alſo one of three coparceners by reſidence in the pariſh; and as their intereſt is equal, it ſeems they may all gain ſettlements. One of four executors was ſettled by reſidence in the pariſh where the premiſes were ſituated, out of which their intereſt accrued. So alſo the owner of a leaſehold intereſt acquired a ſettlement, although the grantor reſerved a ſleeping place, or although the grantee demiſed all the premiſes to another, excepting a fourth part. Neither does it make any difference, if there is no fraud, that the pauper receives relief from another pariſh during his reſidence.

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No one can be removed from the place in which their freehold is ſituated within the firſt forty days of reſidence. But, if he quits it voluntarily, and becomes indigent, he cannot be removed thither unleſs he has reſided forty days. The mere circumſtance of being irremoveable from a place is no criterion of a ſettlement there. In many ſituations beſide that already ſtated, perſons cannot be removed, though they have not acquired ſettlements. The true criterion of ſettlement in any diſtrict maintaining its own poor is, whether the party be removeable thither on the ground of wanting parochial relief. This depends, in all caſes of acquired ſettlements, that is, where reſidence is neceſſary, "upon the ſtatute of 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 12., which di-"rects the ſending a pauper to the place where he was laſt "legally ſettled for the ſpace of forty days." In order therefore to acquire a ſettlement by eſtate, the party muſt reſide forty days in the pariſh in which his eſtate lies, and while his intereſt continues. But the days need not be ſucceſſive; it is enough if he reſide forty in the whole. And it makes no difference whether he reſide on his own eſtate, or at another perſon's, or in an ale-houſe.

Settlement by Payment of public Taxes. This ſpecies of ſettlement depends upon 3 W. III. c. 11. ſ. 6., which enacts, that if any perſon who ſhall come to inhabit in any town or pariſh ſhall be charged, and pay his ſhare towards the public taxes or levies of the ſaid town or pariſh, then he ſhall be adjudged and deemed to have a legal ſettlement. This mode of ſettlement was frequently reſorted to, until the ſtatute 35 Geo. III. c. 101. enacted, "that no perſon or perſons whatſoever, who ſhould come into any pariſh, townſhip, or place, ſhould gain a ſettlement by paying his ſhare towards the public taxes or levies, in reſpect of any tenement not being of the yearly value of 10*l*.. After this act therefore, the aſſeſſment became immaterial, ſince the occupation would confer a ſettlement on the tenant, whether rated or not.

Settlement by Acknowledgment. A pariſh or town, having the management of its own poor, may confer one by acknowledging that a particular perſon has acquired a ſettlement there, which in moſt caſes eſtops them from controverting the fact, either as to the party *himſelf*, or thoſe who claim ſettlement through him. But this acknowledgment muſt, to affect the pariſh, be made by certain preſcribed modes; for the pariſh officers have no power to ſettle a perſon in their pariſh by other acts or declarations.

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No perſon gains a ſettlement in a pariſh by having acted as pariſhioner, and been treated as ſuch in every other reſpect, beſide being rated or receiving pariſh relief. A pariſh may acknowledge a pauper to be ſettled with them in three ways. 1ſt, By relief. 2d. By certificate. 3d. By neglecting to appeal againſt an order of removal.

1. The bare fact of a pauper's having been relieved in a particular inſtance, is no proof of his being ſettled where he was relieved. He might be relieved as caſual poor; and if in want of relief while in the pariſh, the pariſh officers were bound to give it, whether ſettled there or elſewhere. But where a pariſh relieves under circumſtances which exclude the ſuppoſition of its being given to the parts as caſual poor, it is evidence that he is ſettled there.

2. A certificate is a moſt ſolemn acknowledgment by the pariſh who gave it, that the parties who are the ſubject of it are their legally ſettled inhabitants; it is a ſort of adjudication that they are ſo; and when the perſons certificated, or their children, become actually chargeable, the pariſh, who gave the certificate, is bound to receive them. It concludes the pariſh which gave it from controverting any fact which is there ſet forth, as againſt the pariſh to whom it is given. The pariſh cannot therefore diſpute the marriage of perſons whom it has thereby acknowledged to be man and wife. It may alſo bind a pariſh to admit the legitimacy of a ſpurious child, born previouſly.

3. The effect of an acknowledgment, by acquieſcence under an order of removal, is more extenſive than thoſe already mentioned. An acknowledgment, by relief, is no more than *prima facie* evidence of ſettlement in all caſes. If by certificate, it is concluſive againſt the pariſh which grants it, in queſtions between it and the pariſh to which it is delivered. But an order of removal unappealed from, is concluſive on the pariſh upon which the order is made againſt all the world.

An order, to be concluſive, muſt be *bonâ fide* obtained and proſecuted. If a pariſh obtain an order of removal, and then abandon it, conſenting to take the order back, without giving the pariſh to which it is directed the trouble of appealing, it concludes nothing. A party may give up a judgment intended for his own benefit. But to be thus final and concluſive, it muſt not be *ex facie* null. It muſt appear on the face of the order, therefore, to be made by two juſtices having a competent juriſdiction. But it ſeems that it is not permitted to the pariſh, againſt whom it operates,

rates, to ſhew it void by circumſtances, *debars* the inſtrument itſelf, for they muſt, in ſuch a caſe, appeal in the regular courſe of proceedings, or they are concluded by it. It muſt alſo be made to a place to which a removal can be made, and which has officers who may watch over its intereſts, and appeal againſt ſuch orders as affect them without due foundation.

By whom a Settlement may be acquired. A wife cannot acquire a ſettlement by any act of her own, during her huſband's life time. But ſhe may retain her maiden ſettlement under particular circumſtances. It is ſaid, that a child cannot acquire a ſettlement while under the age of ſeven years. But with theſe exceptions a ſettlement may be acquired by all the natural ſubjects of the king, born in any part of his dominions annexed to the crown of England. A priſoner in cuſtody of the warden of the Fleet was held to acquire a ſettlement, by renting and reſiding upon a tenement of the annual value of 10*l.*, ſituate within the rules of that priſon.

A ſubject of any country at peace with the crown of England, or, as he is called in law language, an *alien enemy*, may likewiſe acquire a ſettlement by occupying a tenement of the value of 10*l.* a-year. But it ſeems as if he could not gain one by eſtate, except in a few partial inſtances, becauſe he cannot acquire a permanent intereſt in things immoveable, ſituated within the realm.

By 35 Geo. III. c. 101. ſ. 4., no act done by any poor perſon continuing to reſide in any pariſh, townſhip, or place under the ſuſpenſion of an order for their removal, or of a vagrant paſs for paſſing them, ſhall be effectual, either in the whole or in part, for the purpoſe of giving him or her a ſettlement in the ſame.

Of Certificates. The ſtatutes upon which the law of certificates depend are, 1ſt, 13 and 14 Car. II. c. 12. ſ. 1., which relates principally to certificates given to poor and able-bodied perſons removing occaſionally from their places of inhabiting, to procure work; and is granted by the miniſter of the pariſh, one churchwarden and one overſeer. 2d. 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30., 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11., 12 Anne, c. 18. ſ. 2., and 3 Geo. II. c. 29. ſ. 8 & 9. The object of 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30. was to enable the poor to remove with facility from their places of ſettlement, and become inhabitants of other pariſhes, that they might gain a livelihood without being a burthen there. It makes thoſe who reſide under certificates irremoveable, until actually chargeable, and, in return, prohibits them from acquiring ſettlements while they

they dwell under its protection, " unleſs they really and *bonâ fide* take a leaſe of a tenement of the value of 10*l.*, or execute ſome annual office in ſuch pariſh, being legally placed in ſuch office."

But the ſtatute applied only to perſons mentioned in the certificate, and thoſe who could claim ſettlements from them as natural parts of their family. The 12 Anne, c. 18. ſ. 2., paſſed therefore to prohibit apprentices and ſervants of certificated perſons from acquiring ſettlements as ſuch.

The general principle of this law is, that the certificate's protection, and party's inability to acquire a ſettlement, are co-extenſive. As it obliges a pariſh to receive a perſon to whom the certificate is granted, together with his family, it holds out in return an indemnity to the pariſh receiving them, that neither he nor any of *his family* that then is, or thereafter ſhall be, ſhall, while they continue ſuch, bring any burthen upon it.

Thoſe who reſide under a certificate therefore cannot acquire ſettlements, except by the methods preſcribed in the 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11. But if unprotected by it, they may do ſo in the ſame manner as any other perſon. For wherever a certificate is not concluſive upon the pariſh granting it to receive the party back again, it does not prevent him from acquiring a ſettlement there.

The churchwardens and overſeers of a pariſh may grant certificates, not only to able-bodied perſons to enable them to acquire a livelihood, but likewiſe to the poor and impotent for particular purpoſes; as to protect them during reſidence in their workhouſe erected in another pariſh, for maintenance; or in an hoſpital for cure. They cannot be compelled to grant one in any caſe. But when granted, the following forms are required by ſtatute.

By 8 & 9 W. III. c. 30., 1ſt, It muſt be under the hands and ſeals of the major part of the churchwardens, or under thoſe of overſeers, if there are none. 2d. It muſt be atteſted by two or more credible witneſſes. 3d. It muſt be allowed of, and ſubſcribed by two or more juſtices, within whoſe juriſdiction the pariſh or place which grants it lies. 3 Geo. II. c. 29. ſ. 8., was made to facilitate the mode of proving certificates, and requires, in addition, 4th. That the witneſſes, or one of them, who atteſt the execution of the certificate, ſhall make oath before the juſtices who are to allow it, that he or they ſaw thoſe pariſh officers, whoſe names and ſeals are affixed, ſeverally ſign and ſeal it. 5th. The juſtices are alſo to certify that ſuch oath was made before them; and every certificate ſo allowed, and the oath of the

execution ſo certified, ſhall be taken and allowed in all courts as fully proved, and ſhall be received in evidence, without further proof.

A certificate is not a transferable inſtrument from one pariſh to another. But it need not be directed to any particular pariſh, for it takes effect only by delivery, and a miſtake in the direction does not vitiate it. The 8 & 9 W. III. requires, that it be delivered to the pariſh officers of the certificated pariſh, in order to prevent the party's removal from thence, or his acquiring a ſettlement there.

A certificate extends to three claſſes of perſons: 1ſt, Thoſe actually named in it; 2d. Thoſe who are part of the perſon's family at the time it is granted; 3d. Thoſe who become ſo while he continues to reſide under it. It extends therefore to all who are mentioned expreſsly, although they afterward live away from their parent, and form the head of another family. But unleſs where a perſon is thus deſcribed, it only includes ſuch as live under the ſame roof with the *pater familias*, form his fire-ſide, or, in other words, conſtitute a part of his family or houſehold. It extends therefore to all his children, whether born before or after the certificate is granted; to thoſe by a ſecond wife, taken while the pauper reſides under the certificate, after the death of a firſt, who had removed into the pariſh and reſided with him under it, as alſo to the ſecond wife herſelf, married under ſuch circumſtances. But as it is competent to the parties to limit the extent of a certificate, it may be framed ſo as to exclude, as well as to include, a perſon who would otherwiſe be conſidered as protected by it. The law reſpecting certificates is extended by 12 Anne, c. 18. ſ. 2. to apprentices and ſervants whoſe maſters reſide under them.

Perſons who reſide under a certificate cannot be removed until actually chargeable, although the certificate departs from the uſual form, and promiſes to receive "the paupers and his family, when they ſhall be thereto requeſted;" for it muſt be taken to mean, when they ſhall be legally requeſted upon the party's becoming chargeable. And if the certificate is deſtroyed by caſualty, and the pariſh refuſe to grant a new one, it does not render him previouſly removeable. So alſo, as the certificate does not protect a perſon in his reſidence in a third pariſh, it cannot prevent him from acquiring a ſettlement there. Thus, a ſon born in the certificated pariſh, acquires a ſettlement either by hiring and ſervice, or by apprenticeſhip in a third.

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A certificate may be diſcharged altogether as to the entire family, or continued as to part, and determined as to the remainder. This may be effected in various ways.

1ſt, By a removal of the pauper by the certificated pariſh, to that which granted the certificate, or by a third pariſh, either removing him thither, or to that to which the certificate was given, if there is no appeal againſt the order.

2d, By granting a new certificate to another pariſh.

3d, By the pauper's voluntarily deſerting the certificate, by removing from the pariſh to which it was granted, and taking up his reſidence either in the certifying pariſh, or elſewhere, without an intention to return thither.

4th, By the party's gaining a ſettlement in another pariſh, although it is conſolidated for the maintenance of the poor with the certificated pariſh.

5th, By acquiring a ſettlement in the pariſh to which it is granted. Whether by ſerving an office or renting a tenement of 10*l.* a-year; or by reſidence on a freehold, or leaſehold intereſt, obtained by purchaſe or deſcent, or a copyhold ſurrendered to a wife by her father, or deviſed to her by will, or by the widow's quarantine.

6th, A certificate continues as to any perſon who is expreſsly named therein, until diſcharged by ſome act immediately affecting himſelf; for he is to be conſidered in the ſame ſituation as if the pariſh had granted a diſtinct certificate to him, and conſequently his family reſide under it, and are affected by it.

7th, It is diſcharged as to thoſe who reſide under the general deſcription of part of the family, by their ceaſing to be ſo from being emancipated.

But a certificate is not determined in all caſes as to thoſe who have reſided as members of the family, by the death of the perſon to whom it was originally granted. A man and his wife came into a pariſh under a certificate; the woman dying, the huſband married again, and the ſecond wife was held to reſide under its protection after her huſband's death.

If a certificate is diſcharged by any of theſe means, all who reſide under it, whether as natural parts of the family, as apprentices, or as ſervants, are reſtored to their capacity of acquiring ſettlements in the pariſh as if it had never exiſted.

Of removing the Poor. The modes of removal are three: 1ſt, by order of removal, under 13 & 14 Car. II. chap. 12. to the place of their laſt legal ſettlement; 2d, the

removal of vagrants by a paſs; 3d, a power veſted in the juſtices to remove in ſome particular caſes, not ſpecifically given by ſtatute.

The 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 12. enabled pariſh officers to remove all perſons not ſettled in the pariſh, and *likely to become chargeable* there, to the place of their laſt legal ſettlement. The policy and humanity of the legiſlature introduced ſeveral ſubſequent exceptions to this general law, by rendering perſons irremoveable until they became an actual charge to their place of reſidence; except, 1ſt, perſons convicted of larceny or other felony; 2d, rogues, vagabonds, idle or diſorderly perſons, and ſuch as ſhould appear upon the oath of one or more credible witneſs to be perſons of evil fame, or reputed thieves, and not able to give a ſatisfactory account of themſelves and their way of living; 3d, unmarried women with child, who are taken, and deemed to be actually chargeable.

The ſtatute laſt alluded to (35 Geo. III. c. 101.) was deſigned to give a more general effect to thoſe proviſions in 9 & 10 W. III. c. 11. which enabled poor perſons to quit their places of ſettlement for the purpoſe of a livelihood, and, at the ſame time, to remove the inconveniences which aroſe from granting certificates. The deciſions, therefore, upon the act of William, muſt be conſidered as applicable to the 35 Geo. III. c. 101. being made *in pari materiâ*.

1ſt, It has been determined upon the certificate act, that none but thoſe who are become actually chargeable to the pariſh can be removed from it.

2d, The party muſt become an actual charge and burthen to the pariſh, by receiving relief out of the poor's fund. The aſking relief from a pariſh officer, without receiving it, does not render him chargeable. Neither does the actual receipt of relief from an inhabitant, who is not an officer.

The clauſe reſpecting unmarried women who are pregnant, extends to thoſe who reſide under a certificate, but it does not make perſons removeable who are not proper objects of removal before that act. Thus a ſingle woman who is pregnant, and a perſon of ſubſtance, cannot be removed. It was held therefore that a ſingle woman who was with child, and lived in ſervice, could not be removed againſt her own and her maſter's conſent, as one actually chargeable under this act. For the mere circumſtances of a ſingle woman's being with child, did not before the act operate as a diſſolution of the contract, and make her liable to be removed againſt the conſent both of the maſter and ſervant.

But

But although the party may be chargeable, and in that reſpect liable to removal, other impediments may exiſt to prevent the removal of thoſe who apply for pariſh relief. They are of two kinds: 1ſt, Where the removal would interfere with ſome relationſhip in which the pauper ſtands towards a third perſon, and which the law will not ſuffer to be interrupted without ſuch perſon's conſent. 2d, Where the juſtices have no juriſdiction.

The connections which prevent removals are: 1ſt, huſband and wife; 2d, children within the age of nurture; 3d, a maſter and his apprentice or ſervant.

If a married woman intrudes into a pariſh, apart from her huſband, ſhe may be removed to the place of his ſettlement, if he has one; and if he have none, ſhe may be ſent to her maiden ſettlement.

But no order can ſeparate huſband and wife againſt their conſent. Where a wife ſtands in need of pariſh relief, the huſband becomes chargeable from his inability to maintain her, whom the law calls upon him to ſupport. If he reſide with her, and has a ſettlement, they ſhall be removed thither; or if the woman is removed alone, and the huſband is living, he may be ſent afterwards to his family. But if the huſband is a foreigner, and have no ſettlement, the wife cannot be removed without his conſent, although ſhe aſks a temporary relief, becauſe the huſband has no ſettlement to which he can be ſent; and he and his wife ſhall not, againſt their will, ſuffer ſuch a temporary divorce from each other.

Yet in ſuch a caſe, if the huſband and wife conſent to her removal with her children to her maiden ſettlement, an order to that effect is valid; becauſe married perſons of an inferior condition in life muſt frequently ſeparate, for the purpoſe of ſubſiſting by their labour: there is neither public nor private injury in their doing ſo.

2d, Upon the ſame principle, children cannot be removed from their parents, whether legitimate or otherwiſe.

The remaining connection, which the law does not ſuffer to be broken, is that of a maſter and ſervant, or apprentice, for they ſtand upon a ſimilar footing: theſe contracts cannot be diſſolved, or the parties ſeparated againſt their conſent. But if the maſter is unable to maintain them, it is, perhaps a ſufficient ground to deem him chargeable, and to remove him as ſuch. But if a ſervant be well ſettled in the pariſh, and the maſter is removable, it is ſaid that the former cannot be removed with him, under 43 Eliz.

The ſecond caſe in which magiſtrates are unable to remove, ariſes from a deficiency of juriſdiction. 1ſt, Perſons reſiding upon their own eſtate, howſoever acquired, or whatever the value, though actually chargeable. 2d, A man's wife and family, reſident upon his or her eſtate, or upon a tenement of the value of 10*l.* per annum, notwithſtanding the huſband dwells elſewhere, cannot be removed. For although the wife cannot acquire a ſettlement during his life, yet not only the huſband, but his wife and family, are irremovable in ſuch a ſituation, becauſe they do not come to ſettle in a tenement under the yearly value of 10*l.* 3d, Perſons born in extra-parochial places, for which no overſeers are appointed, cannot be ſent thither as to their place of ſettlement; nor can the poor who reſide there be removed; for neither the 43 Eliz. nor 13 or 14 Car. II. extend to theſe places, or give the juſtices any juriſdiction over them. But if the place is a vill or townſhip, ſo as to admit of having overſeers, the magiſtrates ſhould firſt appoint them, and then make their order. 4th, This rule ſeems, upon the ſame principle, to apply to the caſe of perſons born out of England or Wales, and not having gained a legal ſettlement there.

When a perſon becomes chargeable to the pariſh, the officers (for none elſe can do it) ſhould apply to the magiſtrates for an order to remove him. The complaint may be laid before a ſingle juſtice. It is the foundation of the magiſtrates' juriſdiction, and need not be upon oath. The pauper ought to have notice of this complaint, and be heard (where it can be done) before his removal; for the court will grant an information againſt magiſtrates making an order, if they have omitted to ſummon him through wilful neglect.

The head of the family ſhould be examined when it can be done conveniently, but it is ſometimes unneceſſary and impoſſible. As if he be inſane, or cannot be found; ſo an infant of tender years cannot be examined. The next proceeding, after information by the pariſh officers, is, that the magiſtrate grant a ſummons requiring the party to appear before *two* juſtices; for although the complaint of a pauper's ſettlement may be to one juſtice, the examination ought to be by thoſe two who ſign the order. If upon ſervice of this ſummons the pauper refuſe to come, a warrant may be granted to bring him before two juſtices, who are to examine and remove. The juſtices who make the order, muſt proceed upon *viva voce* teſtimony, taken before themſelves in each other's preſence, by examination upon oath.

If

If the pauper refuſes to anſwer proper queſtions put to him in the courſe of his examination, the juſtices may commit him "until he ſhall anſwer." If the juſtices are ſatisfied upon the pauper's examination, and ſuch other evidence as is adduced before them, that he has intruded into the pariſh, and is become chargeable there, being legally ſettled in ſome other place, they ought to make an order for his removal thither. An order of removal is uſually under hand and ſeal. It is likewiſe uſual and proper to ſpecify the day upon which the order is ſigned. But this omiſſion does not vitiate it, unleſs ſome damage is proved to reſult from the neglect. As an order is a judicial act, requiring the magiſtrates' mutual concurrence, it muſt be determined upon while they are together, and ſhould be ſigned by them in each other's preſence.

In other reſpects the order of removal muſt contain every requiſite particularity of form. It muſt ſet forth the juſtices' authority; that the parties, who are ſought to be removed, are come to inhabit in the pariſh or townſhip to which the officers belong, not having gained a legal ſettlement there; and that they are actually chargeable to the ſaid pariſh or townſhip; it muſt alſo ſtate the examination before two juſtices; deſcribe the parties to be removed with ſufficient certainty; contain proper words of adjudication; and require the officers of the complaining pariſh to remove the pauper; and thoſe of the place in which the ſettlement is adjudged to be, to receive and provide for him.

When an order has been thus made and ſigned, it is the duty of the pariſh officers, who are directed to remove the paupers, to have them ſafely conveyed, at the expence of their pariſh, to the place thereby required to receive and provide for them. If the paupers refuſe to remove in obedience to the order, it ſeems to contain ſufficient powers to enable the perſons to whom it is directed to convey them by force; but at all events the pariſh may obtain a warrant, under the hands and ſeals of the magiſtrates, to enforce it by compulſory means. The perſon to whom the duty of removal is entruſted, ſhould ſafely deliver the poor together with the order to one of the pariſh officers of the pariſh directed to receive them. Or if only one original is made, he ſhould give a copy, and ſhew the original. But if the original is delivered, and a copy kept, that is ſufficient. It ſeems alſo to be enough to produce the juſtices' warrant to convey the pauper, inaſmuch as the magiſtrates may retain the original order. If the pariſh officers refuſe to execute or obey an order of this kind, they may be puniſhed by in-

dictment; for the only means by which a parish, thus required to receive a pauper, can get rid of the order, is by appeal to the quarter sessions.

The duplicate original order should be carried by one of the justices who signed it, to the next general or quarter sessions, and retained in the hands of the clerk of the peace, as a conclusive record of the settlement, where the receiving parish neglects to appeal.

Pass-warrants only respect persons who are convicted of being in a state of actual vagrancy. No other persons can be sent by a pass, even at their own request; but must be regularly removed by order of two justices.

Magistrates have obtained powers to suspend the execution of orders of removal and vagrant passes by the humane provisions of 35 Geo. III. c. 101. which enacts that in case any poor person shall be brought before any justice for the purpose of being removed, and shall appear unable to travel, by reason of sickness or other infirmity, or that it would be dangerous for him or her so to do, the justice is required and authorized to suspend the execution of the order until satisfied that it may be executed without danger.

Besides the general form of removal to the place of settlement, there may be other removals; as of wives to their husbands, children to their parents, apprentices or servants to their masters; of persons brought illegally from one parish to another. But this is not in pursuance of the statute 13 & 14 Car. II., but of the general power of the justices in regulating matters relating to poor persons. The object of such orders is solely for the party's removal, and they should not contain an order of maintenance, which magistrates have no authority to make under these circumstances.

The statute of Charles II., which enabled two justices to remove persons intruding into parishes, excepted persons going to work in another parish, with a certificate from the minister of the parish, one churchwarden, and one overseer, certifying, that they were inhabitants of that place, and had left part of their family behind. The section proceeds to direct, that they should return when the work is finished; and that if they do not, or if they fall sick, or become impotent, they shall be removed to the certifying parish, and if they refuse to go, or will not remain in the parish where they ought to be settled, but return to the parish whence they were removed, any justice may commit them to the house of correction as vagabonds, or to a public workhouse in the parish, to be employed in work or labour.

But as this act contained no other proviſion, by which perſons coming into pariſhes without theſe certificates could be puniſhed in a ſummary way for returning after removal, this defect was remedied by 17 Geo. II. c. 5., which provides, that all perſons who ſhall *unlawfully* return to a pariſh or place from whence they have been legally removed, without bringing a certificate, ſhall be deemed idle and diſorderly perſons, and a juſtice may commit them to the houſe of correction, to be kept to hard labour for any time not exceeding one month.

If a party is illegally committed, his remedies are, 1ſt, By appeal to the quarter ſeſſions, where he may diſpute the legality of the commitment upon its merits as well as form. 2d, By having the commitment returned into the court of King's Bench, under an *habeas corpus*, where it will be quaſhed for ſuch defects as appear upon the face of it. 3d, By action brought againſt the magiſtrates, who have exceeded their juriſdiction by committing him. 4th, By motion for a criminal information, where they appear to have acted from malice or corrupt motives.

Relief. There are certain methods of providing for the poor in caſe of the parochial funds, to which the pariſh officers ought to have recourſe in the firſt inſtance. 1ſt, By making certain relations of the impotent poor contribute to maintain them, if of ſufficient ability. 2d, By enforcing the maintenance of illegitimate children by their reputed parents. 3d, By putting out apprentices. Where theſe means are incompetent to the poor's relief, they muſt apply, 4th, to the general fund raiſed by the rate.

1ſt, As to the maintenance by relations. The 43 Eliz. c. 2. enacts, that the father, grandfather, mother and grandmother, and children of impotent poor, being of ſufficient ability, ſhall relieve and maintain them, according to that rate, as "by the juſtices of the county, where ſuch ſufficient perſon dwells, at their general quarter ſeſſions, ſhall be aſſeſſed." And by the 11 & 12 W. III. c. 4, where popiſh parents refuſe to allow their proteſtant children a maintenance ſuited to their degree, in order to compel them to change their religion, the lord chancellor or keeper of the great ſeal may make an order therein; and 1 Ann. ſt. 1. c. 30. gives the ſame power, where proteſtant children of Jewiſh parents are in the like ſituation. On the firſt ſtatute it has been decided, that it extends only to natural relations, and not to ſuch as are acquired by marriage. A father-in-law, therefore, is under no obligation to maintain his wife's child after the mother's death, nor in her lifetime, although the

husband acquire an estate with her, nor a father his son's wife or widow; neither is a son-in-law bound to maintain his wife's mother. And the obligation extends only to such relations as are particularly enumerated in the statute. An order, therefore, cannot be made upon a man to maintain his wife, much less a bastard child. The penalty in the statute for disobeying the order is twenty shillings a month, but the party may also be indicted for his contumacy. Several statutes have provided remedies against parents who desert, or threaten to desert their families, and particularly the 5 Geo. I. c. 8., which empowers justices to make provision out of the estates of such fugitives, if they have any; the 17 Geo. II. 2. c. 5., (commonly called the vagrant act) which includes such persons in the descriptions of rogues and vagabonds; and the 32 Geo. III. c. 45., which includes those who bring their families to distress by dissipation and idleness in the same list.

2d, With respect to bastard children, the care of them is cast on the putative father by several statutes, from the 18 Eliz. c. 3. to a very recent time. Under them, two justices out of a general session, or the general quarter session itself, have power to examine and adjudge who is the father of an illegitimate child with which any woman is pregnant, or of which she may have been delivered, and to award such sum for past expences and future maintenance as they shall deem necessary for the indemnification of the parish. Disobedience of the order subjects the offender to three months imprisonment. The parish officers may however take a bond from the putative father, and unless the child becomes chargeable, they cannot in any way interfere with his manner of providing for, or educating it. There are also statutes for punishing the fathers and mothers of such children; but they are seldom, if ever, enforced.

3d, As to putting out apprentices. It is in the discretion of the churchwardens and overseers (as appears by the preamble 43 Eliz.) to select for this purpose such children as they shall think their parents are unable to maintain. But this must be with the consent of two or more justices, in whom the statute vests a power to make an order. The age of the apprentice is of no importance, nor is the condition of the master. The statute also compels parishioners of sufficient ability in certain cases to receive apprentices. When an apprentice is effectually bound, his master takes him for better or worse, and is to provide for him in sickness and in health. But the justices cannot order him wages during the term of his apprenticeship, or any thing to be given him after the term is ended.

4th,

4th, The relief of the poor out of the parochial fund. This is by far the moſt expenſive and moſt ordinary mode of obtaining relief. The objects of it are, 1ſt, ſettled poor; 2d, caſual poor. A great many general as well as local ſtatutes regulate and preſcribe the modes of adminiſtering, applying for, and enforcing this relief, which is given to the paupers at their own dwellings, or by receiving them into workhouſes. If application is made at a public meeting of the pariſh, or to two overſeers, and relief refuſed, a juſtice has power to ſummon the overſeers, and on their not ſhewing ſufficient cauſe, to order them to relieve the paupers in ſuch manner (ſubject to proper reſtrictions) as he may think juſt. The juriſdiction to make orders for relief of the poor by the ſeſſions, and by a ſingle juſtice, are concurrent. No appeal therefore lies againſt an order of maintenance; and the reaſon is, leſt while the point is litigating, the poor ſhould ſtarve. For diſobedience of theſe orders the pariſh officers may be indicted.

Where a poor perſon, not ſettled in a pariſh, becomes chargeable, from accident or ſudden calamity, he falls within the deſcription of caſual poor, and the pariſh in which he is detained becomes bound to relieve and take care of him. This obligation is ſo ſtrong that if a pariſhioner, not being a pariſh officer, takes care of one rendered poor and impotent from ſudden accident, as by the fracture of a limb, he may recover againſt the pariſh officers the ſum expended for his cure and ſupport, upon an implied promiſe, ariſing from this their duty. But the pariſh cannot recover, as upon an implied promiſe, the ſum which they have expended for his relief from the place in which he is ſettled, although they give notice to the officers of the pariſh where the pauper is ſettled, pending his illneſs. Neither have they a remedy againſt the maſter of a ſervant who becomes ſuddenly diſabled by misfortune; for pariſhes are under a moral as well as a legal obligation to take care of their caſual poor.

Overseers' Accounts. When the pariſh officers are retiring from office, their remaining duty is to make up and paſs their accounts, and to deliver over the balance to their ſucceſſors, together with the property and documents of the pariſh. This duty is preſcribed and enforced by various ſtatutes. Their accounts are to be verified on oath before a magiſtrate, and if not ſatisfactory to the pariſhioners, or any of them, an appeal lies to the ſeſſion. They are alſo, within fourteen days after their year expires, to deliver to their ſucceſſors a juſt and perfect account in writ-

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ing, fairly entered in a book, of their receipts and expenditures, &c.; and the ſucceeding overſeers are required to keep them ſafely. They are allowed fourteen days after they go out of office to pay and deliver over to their ſucceſſors the money and other property of the pariſh remaining in their hands; but if they do not deliver in their account, and pay over the money, &c., as required by 17 Geo. II. c. 38., two juſtices may immediately commit ſuch as refuſe, until they do. When the balance of an account is found againſt pariſh officers, the juſtices who take the account under 43 Eliz. have power to make an order for them to pay the balance, as well as to iſſue warrants to diſtrain. They may likewiſe make a joint order upon all the officers to pay; for all conſtitute but one joint officer; and payment to one is payment to all, and the payment by one a diſcharge of all. And although the 43d Eliz. directs that the balance ſhall be paid to the ſucceeding overſeers, yet if it has not been paid to them, the order may direct it to be paid to thoſe who are overſeers at the time when ſuch order is made. A further remedy for neglecting to pay over ſuch balance is by indictment, which lies for this offence, as alſo for refuſal to account within the limited time by ſtatute, or for making a fraudulent charge in the account. If they refuſe to deliver public books and papers belonging to the pariſh, the Court of King's Bench will iſſue a mandamus to compel them.

Appeals. In almoſt every inſtance where power is given to the juſtices by the poor laws, an appeal is allowed to the ſeſſion, which may finally decide the point in diſpute, or if the law is difficult, may grant leave to the party againſt whom they have decided, to carry a report of the facts found at the ſeſſion as a caſe for the judgment of the Court of King's Bench. In theſe caſes, however, the juſtices in ſeſſion certify all the facts, and their ſtatement cannot be controverted or explained: the law alone is left to the court above.

Observations. The ſyſtem ſo amply deſcribed, involving as it muſt a great expence, and no inconſiderable portion of litigation, has not eſcaped from the animadverſions of many ſenſible writers and profound politicians. The mode of ſupporting the poor is decried as too burthenſome on the inferior houſeholder, who, while reduced almoſt to actual miſery himſelf, is obliged to part with what he cannot ſpare, in order to ſupply the leſs feeling mendicant with better food, cloathing, and lodging, than he himſelf, with all his induſtry, can obtain. It is cenſured as extinguiſhing in the boſom of the lower claſs that honeſt ſpirit of independence

which

which makes a man ſtrive to retain a home of his own, and ſpurn eleemoſynary relief as a degradation. The idleneſs which is thus introduced and encouraged is lamented, not only as an incentive to evil, but as a diminution of the general good ariſing from general labour. All theſe objections have their foundation on truth, but the neceſſity of maintaining, or at leaſt relieving the poor, preſſes, with daily clamour, on thoſe who are to diſtribute the funds allowed for that purpoſe, and as the ſtatute 43 Eliz. was not paſſed till every other device had been eſſayed in vain, and as no plan has yet been propoſed capable of anſwering as a ſubſtitute, it muſt be ſuppoſed, until the contrary ſhall be made appear, that the preſent ſyſtem, with all its faults, is the only one which can be made generally uſeful and beneficial.

The following extract from the work of Mr. Oddy on Commerce is worthy of attention, as well for the reaſoning as the facts it contains.

"In every ſociety there is a number of perſons who are, either from extreme old age, from having loſt their parents in early youth, or from bodily diſeaſe or infirmity, unable to provide for their own maintenance. In every well-regulated ſociety, humanity dictates to thoſe who are in health and affluence to provide for this helpleſs portion of the human race, either by voluntary ſubſcription, by the charity of individuals adminiſtered by themſelves, or by a tax laid upon the whole, and adminiſtered by perſons appointed for the purpoſe. The latter is the mode adopted in England; and it is of leſſening the expences of the poor, when provided for on that plan, that we mean to ſpeak; not pretending to enter into parochial details, or to propoſe complicated ſchemes or a repeal of exiſting laws, but merely to propoſe ſimple and practicable means of leſſening the immenſe burthen that is felt by the nation on that account, which will be the leſs difficult, as it is evident that the great expence that ariſes is owing to a waſteful and wrong adminiſtration of the funds; for whether we compare the preſent expence with what it was in times paſt in this nation, or what it is now, in either it is moſt enormous; and as the proportion of thoſe who can labour, and thoſe who cannot, is naturally the ſame in all places, and at all times, this great exceſs, beyond that of any other time or place, muſt either be owing to bad laws or bad execution of them. That it is in the latter will appear from this circumſtance. In 1793, ſome parts of the poor ſyſtem that were moſt manifeſtly bad, were altered, at the ſuggeſtion of the Right Honourable George Roſe, who has had equal attention to the intereſts of the nation, and

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the claims of humanity in what he did; but ſtill the poor's rate has increaſed more than in the due proportion. It is true that, ſince then, we have been conſtantly at war, and that every neceſſary of life has grown dearer; but ſtill, with all allowances for that, the increaſe of expence is beyond what it would be reaſonable to expect.

It is to the amelioration of the mode of acting under the preſent laws, not to an alteration of them, that we are to look for a reduction of expence, and nothing will be propoſed of doubtful practicability.

After viewing the wonderful reſources which remain to be brought into action in England, and the variety of means for increaſing induſtry, foreigners may well look with ſurpriſe at the great number of our poor, when thoſe of every deſcription might be employed; but, above all, the immenſe expence to provide for them. The poor's rates of England and Wales alone amount to half as much as the whole revenue of the Ruſſian empire; and the number of paupers, or objects receiving parochial relief, is near one ſeventh part of the population of England and Wales.

After tithes, there is not perhaps a greater grievance to the land owner of England than the poor's rates, nor which gives riſe to more litigation, or general animoſity in almoſt every pariſh. Reſpecting the poor of England, king Henry VII., in 1496, and king Henry VIII., in 1536, firſt cauſed ſome voluntary relief to be adminiſtered; but the fifth of Elizabeth was the firſt period that poor-laws became compulſory, and thoſe ſtatutes, then paſſed, are many of them ſtill in force; each pariſh being compelled to ſupport its own poor, though upon a principle of humanity not practiſed in any other country in the world than England *.

The preſent poor-laws are impolitic in a free country like this, in many inſtances; they put the poor man under many reſtraints, prejudical, indeed, not only to himſelf, but to the community; the law of ſettlements being a great hardſhip to individuals, and a diſadvantage to the nation at large. Let the labourer go where he can get beſt paid for his induſtry, as in Ireland, without reſtraint; thoſe pariſhes through which he paſſes ſhould afford relief, and transfer the charge to the pariſh to which he belongs. Were this the caſe, the poor would, in many inſtances, be leſs burdenſome.

* King James VI. of Scotland, in 1579, made ſome favourable laws for the poor of that kingdom, which were ratified in the reigns of King Charles II. and King William.

Davenant

Davenant obſerves, towards the end of the reign of Charles II., that the poor's rates of England and Wales were 665,000*l.* By the accounts laid before parliament in the following years, the money raiſed for the poor was, in

	£.	s.	d.
1776.			
England - - -	1,679,585	0	0
Wales - - -	440,731	14	7
	2,120,316	14	7
Money expended for the poor in			
England - - -	1,523,163	12	7
Wales - - -	33,640	13	8
	1,556,804	6	3
And, in litigation - -	35,072	0	8
1785.			
By rates in England - -	2,063,093	11	5
Wales - - -	66,622	12	2
	2,129,721	3	7
Money expended for the poor in			
England - - -	1,945,996	19	10
Wales - - -	60,000	17	1
	2,005,997	16	11

In the 43d of his preſent majeſty, an act paſſed for procuring returns relative to the expence and maintenance of the poor in England and Wales; on the 9th of May 1804, ſuch account was laid on the table of the Houſe of Commons.

A particular ſpecification is given of the number of objects relieved, and the ſum raiſed to afford that relief; likewiſe to what particular purpoſes that money has been applied.

That the expence is unequal, on account of the places, is in ſome degree certain; Middleſex being dearer than Wales; but a ſtill greater inequality appears to ariſe from management; as, in counties contiguous to each other, ſuch as Glouceſter and Hereford, the difference is more than one half. This is ſeen from the returns made.

From the number of poor varying as three to one in the hundred, it is clear that there muſt be caprice and bad management in that, as well as in the expenditure: that is, in

ſome

ſome places they refuſe relief when it ſhould be given, and probably, in others, give it when it ſhould be refuſed.

As to gaining any thing conſiderable by working, there are no materials to work upon; at leaſt the materials, if taken by the number of perſons in and out of workhouſes, would not amount to two ſhillings a-year each perſon!

From the table of which this is the reſult, it appears that the higheſt expence of maintainiug poor in workhouſes, is 14*l.* 15*s.* 1*d.*, the loweſt 8*l.* 1*s.*, the greateſt number per hundred is 23; the loweſt 7; and that if the whole were at the loweſt rate, it would only coſt 2,500 000*l.*, if at the loweſt number, and loſt rate, 800,000*l.*

If we add to this, that thoſe actually aſſiſted would work, there can be no doubt that the poor's rates might be reduced to a very ſmall ſum.

The following calculation is juſt half what, in recourſe to proper management, it might be reckoned.

	£.
From a diminution in the number relieved -	1,500,000
From greater economy in adminiſtration -	1,000,000
From the labour of thoſe relieved, ſuppoſe 700,000, at 5*l.* each - -	3,500,000
	6,000,000

The following is the ſtate reſulting from the inquiry mentioned, the deſcription of the objects relieved, and the money raiſed and expended.

Perſons relieved out of the workhouſes, (not including their children) - -	329,729
Perſons relieved in workhouſes, including children - - - -	80,492
The children of perſons relieved permanently, and others, out of the workhouſes, under five years of age - - -	119,780
Ditto, five to fourteen years of age - -	193,587
Perſons relieved occaſionally - -	299,823
Perſons relieved, not being pariſhioners -	183,070
	1,206,481
Number of perſons who are above ſixty years of age, or diſabled from labour by permanent illneſs, or other infirmity - -	166,581
The number of Friendly Societies who hold their meetings within each pariſh or place, are 9397, containing perſons - -	882,050
Children in the ſchools of induſtry - -	21,703

Money

	£.	s.	d.
Money expended for the poor, out of the workhouſes, or houſes of induſtry - - -	3,015,745	1	5¼
Money expended in workhouſes, or houſes of induſtry - -	1,020,506	18	2¾
Expended in ſuits of law, removals of paupers, and expences of overſeers, and other officers - -	198,127	13	1¼
Expended for church rates, high ways, &c. &c. ending Eaſter 1803	980,434	14	0½
Total expenditure - - -	5,214,814	6	10¾

	£.	s.	d.
Total amount of money raiſed by the poor's rates, and other rates in England and Wales, for the year ending Eaſter 1803 - -	5,246,506	13	7¾
The average rate of England is per pound - - -	0	4	6¾
Ditto, Wales ditto - -	0	7	3
Ditto, of England and Wales, ditto -	0	4	8

				which produced £.	s.	d.
Money expended in purchaſing materials for employing the poor out of the workhouſes, or houſes of induſtry - -	£11,168	6	6¾	21,605	15	7¼
Thoſe in workhouſes, &c. - -	39,616	18	2	66,283	14	4
	50,785	4	8¾	87,889	9	11¼
Amount of the firſt coſt of the raw materials - - -				50,785	4	8¾
Profit by their labour - -				37,104	5	2½

The total number of perſons receiving parochial relief were - - -		1,206,481
Deduct thoſe diſabled from labour, by illneſs or infirmity, above ſixty years of age - -	166,581	
Children under five years of age -	119,700	
		286,281
Then there remain capable of ſome labour -		920,200

There

There were then 1,206,481 people taken out of the population, who chiefly lived upon the induſtry of the others; of theſe 920,200 are fully capable to work and earn more or leſs, hitherto a heavy burden upon the other part of the community; and ſurely it is not difficult to deviſe means to bring their induſtry into action, ſuitable to their ability, ſtrength, and ſituation.

If we were ſteadily to adopt the reſolution of raiſing our own hemp and flax amongſt ourſelves, upon our waſte lands, the dreſſing of thoſe articles by ſome, and the various departments of labour for others, even the moſt feeble being able to ſpin the yarn finer or coarſer, as in different parts of Lithuania, Ermland, and Germany, where even the women and children aſſiſt in every proceſs of ſowing, pulling, watering, and dreſſing the flax, afterwards ſpinning and weaving, as is to be ſeen in every cottage and village, yarn might, at any event, be produced, of which we import ſo conſiderable a quantity.

The raiſing of hemp and flax throughout the country would give general employment, and if every occupier of land, inſtead of contributing his rates in money, was obliged to contribute by producing ſo much hemp and flax, upon the principle of the exiſting act of 24th Henry VIII., and alſo of the 5th Elizabeth, it would furniſh the raw material for the employment of the poor, diffuſed throughout the kingdom, without the expence of carriage, from one place to another. Suppoſing that 920,200 perſons, one with another, earned only five-pence halfpenny per day each; and only reckoning that they were employed three hundred days in the year, it would produce 5,176,125*l.* per annum. There is no article or manufacture ſo well adapted as hemp and flax for their employment, nor capable of ſo many different degrees of labour and perfection, without injuring any other ſpecies of our manufactures. Flax alone ſeems particularly the article which the poor ſhould be occupied in, becauſe one acre will produce as much flax as is ſufficient to employ as many hands, as twenty acres will produce of wool. Flax, too, is capable of being wrought to any ſtate of fineneſs or value, from one ſhilling a pound to four guineas an ounce, which is ſometimes paid for fine thread for making lace in Flanders.

There is no article ſo ſuitable, or which can be manufactured with ſo much eaſe as flax; it has the advantage over the woollen manufacture, and particularly the cotton, which cannot be carried on without mechaniſm. About four acres of land, in each pariſh, in flax, would employ all the poor, only

rally to carry it to the ſtate of weaving, at which time it would be ſold or woven at the expence of the pariſh. Towns and country pariſhes might have a commutation of labour and land, or produce, and all would go on eaſily."

The great error in theſe calculations, and in the remedy propoſed by Mr. Oddy, conſiſts in his ſuppoſing that all who receive relief are entirely dependent on the parochial fund. That it is not ſo is very evident; for 5,246,506*l.* would never ſupport 1,206,481 people. If they are not entirely dependent, they cannot be made to work in the way he ſuppoſes; nor is it fit they ſhould, conſidering how many other employments are in readineſs for them. Of the perſons relieved out of the workhouſe, and thoſe relieved occaſionally, the far greater portion are ſick or wounded men, and lying-in women, who, as ſoon as their ailments ceaſe, return to labour. The claſs from five years old to fourteen, is a very wide and vague deſcription, as in moſt pariſhes the children above ſeven years of age, although lodged in and fed from the workhouſe, are made to earn their own ſubſiſtence. The perſons relieved not being pariſhioners, are either caſual poor, who are immediately paſſed to another pariſh, and ſo melted down into the other claſſes, or ſoldiers' wives with certificates entitling them to relief, or vagrants with paſſes, in their tranſit from one pariſh to another. Theſe are not capable of contributing more than they do to the public benefit.

FRIENDLY SOCIETIES. One of the particulars contained in the enumeration of poor by Mr. Oddy, is thoſe who are formed into friendly ſocieties. Theſe ſocieties, which are alſo often denominated benefit clubs, cannot be too much commended. They have been eſtabliſhed among the working people and others for about a century; and the experience of the advantages derived from them has extended them to almoſt every part of Great Britain. It is perhaps unneceſſary to inform the reader, that the purpoſe of theſe inſtitutions is to put it in the power of the induſtrious many to relieve the wants of the induſtrious few, who may be diſabled by ſickneſs or age from gaining their bread, out of a fund created by their own periodical contributions. Therefore, when they are judiciouſly eſtabliſhed, upon equitable and ſcientific principles, they muſt be of great moral and political advantage, in giving a check to that abandoned, and too general, propenſity to waſte, and diſregard of character, which induce many of the lower claſs of people to throw themſelves upon the pariſh rather than work; to introduce, or rather reſtore, an independence of ſpirit, a reliance upon

their own exertions, and an honourable pride in placing a dependence upon funds derived from their own induſtry; and to counteract the heavy and growing oppreſſion of the poor's rates. The legiſlature, thinking the protection and encouragement of ſuch ſocieties likely to promote the happineſs of individuals, and diminiſh the public burthens, inveſted them with the powers and privileges of corporations, on condition that their rules be ſubmitted to the inſpection of the juſtices in quarter ſeſſions, and confirmed by them, which gives them great advantages in the management of their funds, and defends them from depredations. The courts are required to adminiſter ſpeedy juſtice to the ſocieties againſt any of their officers who withhold their funds; and the effects of deceaſed officers of the ſocieties are made liable for the debts due to them in preference to the claims of all other creditors. The courts are alſo directed to appoint council and agents to manage their cauſes, who, as well as the officers of the courts, are required to do their duty without fee or reward: neither is any ſtamp duty chargeable upon the proceedings in ſuch cauſes. To prevent the members of ſuch ſocieties from defrauding thoſe who have a right to be relieved by them, they are debarred from diſſolving themſelves and dividing the funds, unleſs they have obtained the conſent in writing of all entitled to relief, and of five-ſixths of the ſociety. The members of the ſocieties are exempted from the hardſhip of being driven from the pariſh wherein their choice, or their intereſt, induces them to live, unleſs they or their families actually become chargeable without having obtained a legal ſettlement in ſuch pariſh. See 33 Geo. III. c. 54. 35 Geo. III. c. 111. 43 Geo. III. c. 111. 49 Geo. III. c. 123.

Mr. Colquhoun reckoned 1600 friendly ſocieties in London and its neighbourhood, in the year 1799, of which 800 had enrolled themſelves according to law. He eſtimates the number of members to be 80,000, and their annual contributions to be 1*l.* from each member; but ſince the time when his treatiſe was written, they have much increaſed; and probably ſince the return was made to parliament from which Mr. Oddy derives his ſtatement, a conſiderable augmentation has taken place.

Sir Frederick Eden illuſtrates the beneficial effects of ſuch ſocieties upon the labouring claſſes, by "comparing the condition of thoſe who are members of them, and of thoſe who, in the ſame village, are contented to rely on the pariſh for relief. The former are, in general, comparatively cleanly, orderly, and ſober, and conſequently happy, and

good

good members of ſociety; whilſt the latter are living in filth and wretchedneſs, and are often, from the preſſure of a caſual ſickneſs, or accident, which incapacitates them from working, tempted to the commiſſion of improper acts, (not to ſay crimes,) againſt which the ſure reſource of a benefit club would have been the beſt preſervative."

Both Mr. Colquhoun and Sir Frederick Eden recommend a prohibition of the purchaſe of lottery tickets, or any other gambling adventures, by the ſocieties corporately, or the members individually; and it would be a moſt beneficial exertion for the public, if the legiſlature could prevent theſe excellent aſſociations from being converted into confederacies for raiſing the price of labour and diſtreſſing and over-awing their maſters.

VOLUNTARY RELIEF. But as every plan of ſocial benevolence, however wiſely framed and prudently adminiſtered, muſt be inadequate, unleſs the efforts of individual virtue are called in aid of the public contribution, ſo it would inevitably happen that the money raiſed by rates, however large in its amount, would leave a frightful maſs of miſery unrelieved, were it not for the active generoſity and eager compaſſion of the Britiſh character, which is diſplayed throughout all parts of the empire in permanent eſtabliſhments and temporary donations to an extent unparalleled in the annals of man. In the following pages, ſome account will be given of the inſtitutions in and near the metropolis, extracted from a late publication by Mr. Highmore. The diſplay is ſtriking and impreſſive, and if the catalogue were augmented by the charities eſtabliſhed in every county in the kingdom, it would create in the mind of the reader a mingled ſenſation of awe and rapture.

In England, this author obſerves, private and public charity has become univerſal. It may be truly affirmed that private beneficence is too extenſive and too diffident to be known; the higheſt and the loweſt, the richeſt and the pooreſt, have alike a heart for pity. Thouſands of cottages will produce an aged parent bending to the grave, hoary and blind with years, receiving the comfort and perhaps the only ſupport of a dutiful ſon or an affectionate daughter, whoſe daily labour ſcarcely ſupplies ſufficient food for the ſubſiſtence of themſelves and their children. In ſome, mental or bodily imbecility will be found protected and cheriſhed, and acting as an additional ſtimulus to induſtry and a ſober life; in others, the deſire of kind and neighbourly offices, the returns of acknowledgment, perſonal attention and intereſt in ſickneſs, aſſiſtance in danger and trouble, and above all,

the ſalutary communication of religious conſolation, have become ſo common that they are little noticed, and never recorded by the buſy paſſing world; but they add to the glory of the age in which we have the happineſs to live, and extend the beams of mercy and truth under which we may bend with reverence and gratitude.

The private benevolences of the rich and powerful are in England countleſs as the ſand; an attempt to enumerate the gifts which every family and every individual of it beſtow, would be vain. It is, alike, impracticable to tell the various channels in which the ſtream of benevolence flows among equals; all theſe the veil of humility and charity conceals, and if they are ever known it is by their effects. It is thus that the ſpirit to think and to do what is right is abroad amongſt us, and has perſuaded our hearts that we are intruſted with each other's welfare.

But the benevolence which is public in England is ſeen every where. The legiſlative and parochial taxation for the poor is eſtimated at an annual amount of ſeveral millions; in addition to which, no part of the army or of the navy, the church, or any other eſtabliſhment, not the ſmalleſt congregation for worſhip among the numerous denominations of Chriſtians or of Jews, not the ſmalleſt diſtrict, not a hamlet or a village unknown to the paſſing traveller, and too inſignificant to find a place on the map, not a city or town, pariſh, or ward, throughout the United Kingdom, not a manufactory of the leaſt extent, not a corporate aſſociation, or company for trade, agriculture, ſcience, education, or medicine, not a club for the enjoyment of feſtivity, for the pleaſures of the chace, or for the indulgence even of luxury in her various folds, not even a theatre, will be found without their reſpective inſtitutions of charity, to which a willing and prompt ſubſcription flows almoſt without ſolicitation; and in all which, both the extent of opulence and ſplendor, and the parſimonious diſtribution of the ſcantieſt means, alike afford for the neceſſitous a proportional tythe, and far more than a tythe of all they poſſeſs. Thus, every individual in England becomes a benefactor to others, and thereby is the greateſt benefactor to himſelf.

The enumeration which is to enſue will only particularly deſcribe a few of the moſt important inſtitutions in each claſs; for more ample details, the reader is referred to the ample, though compreſſed, volume of Mr. Highmore; and it is to be recollected that in this work an account has already been given of ſeveral eſtabliſhments ſupported at the public expence, or which are altogether public in their

objects, as the hoſpitals of Greenwich and Chelſea, the Marine Society, and ſeveral of the public ſeminaries.

Hospitals. The moſt conſpicuous of theſe are the five which are termed *royal*, namely, St. Bartholomew's, Bethlem, Bridewell, Chriſt's, and St. Thomas's.

St. Bartholomew's. The original foundation of this extenſive building has been traced from the earlieſt documents and records to the benevolence of Raherus, in 1102, who is ſaid to have been minſtrel to Henry I.: he founded a priory of black canons, of whom he was the firſt prior, contiguous to it, with an endowment of 553*l.* per annum; and the eſtates which he alſo ſettled upon this hoſpital were then valued at 305*l.* His eſtabliſhment was, for brethren and ſiſters, ſick perſons, and pregnant women. Many additional endowments were from time to time made, and at length its title was ſettled to be "the mayor and commonalty, and citizens of the city of London, as governors of the houſe of the poor, commonly called St. Bartholomew's Hoſpital, near Weſt Smithfield, London, of the foundation of king Henry VIII." The whole of its buildings happily eſcaped the general fire in 1666, but a conſiderable part of the houſes which conſtituted its chief revenue were deſtroyed. The hoſpital was repaired in 1691, and by the liberality of the corporation and citizens, its houſes were rebuilt, and its income reſtored; the progreſs of the foundation was carried on uninterruptedly until the year 1729, when upon a general ſurvey, the buildings of the hoſpital were found by their antiquity to have become ruinous and dangerous; a ſubſcription was therefore promoted for defraying the expence of an entirely new ſtructure upon its preſent plan of a quadrangle, each ſide being detached from the others, and united only by ſtone gateways. To effect this, the ancient cloiſter was removed. The firſt ſtone was laid by the lord mayor, in preſence of divers aldermen and other governors, on the 9th of June 1730, in which was affixed a plate of copper with the following inſcription: "This building was begun by the voluntary ſubſcription of the governors of St. Bartholomew's Hoſpital, in the fourth year of the reign of king George II., A.D. 1730, in the mayoralty of Sir Richard Brocas, knt., then preſident of the ſaid hoſpital."

The application for admiſſion to St. Bartholomew's Hoſpital is greatly facilitated by the readineſs with which all information is given to the poor and their friends at the ſteward's office, where the neceſſary petition is delivered gratis, in which the name and the diſeaſe are to be inſerted,

and ſome houſekeeper is to ſign an undertaking to receive the patient when diſcharged, or to bury him if he ſhould die in the hoſpital.

BETHLEM. This hoſpital originates from a priory, founded in 1274. At the ſuppreſſion of monaſteries by Henry VIII., the value of the priory was eſtimated at 504*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.* Sir John Greſham, lord mayor, petitioned the king for it with ſucceſs. In 1547 he granted its lands and revenues to the corporation of London, for the reception and maintenance of lunatics; and in 1549, letters patent were iſſued to John Whitehead, proctor of the hoſpital, to ſolicit donations within the counties of Lincoln and Cambridge, the city of London, and Iſle of Ely. In the reign of Edward VI. it was united to the pariſh of St. Botolph, Biſhopſgate. The confined limits and decaying ſtate of the priory were little calculated for the reception of thoſe who were the objects of its attention, and whoſe numbers unhappily increaſed; as there was no limitation in the grant, they made applications for admiſſion from all parts of the kingdom; it was therefore found neceſſary to remove it and enlarge its accommodations, which was begun in April 1644, and the corporation allotted a large piece of ground near London Wall, on the ſouth ſide of the lower quarter of Moorfields, for this purpoſe: the building was begun and completed by voluntary contributions, in 1676, at an expence of 17,000*l.* The deſign was taken from the Chateau des Tuilleries, at Paris; the center and wings of ſtone, with Corinthian pilaſters, but the body of brick. Louis XIV. was ſo much offended at this copy of his palace, that he ordered a plan of St. James's palace to be taken for offices of a very inferior nature. The two lunatics upon the pillars of the front gates were the work of Caius Gabriel Cibber, a native of Holſtein, who came into England ſome time before the reſtoration; their great merit has rendered them ſo juſtly celebrated, that it is ſaid the king of Denmark, in his viſit to London, offered a conſiderable ſum for them. In 1708 a licenſe was granted by queen Anne, to the corporation, to purchaſe and hold in fee, or for lives, or years, or otherwiſe, in truſt for this hoſpital, any lands, &c. to the value of 2000*l.* per annum. The increaſe of applications rendered a further enlargement neceſſary, and in 1733 two wings were added, which enabled the governors to maintain one hundred incurable patients, fifty of each ſex. The number of patients capable of relief amounts, on an average, to one hundred and ſeventy; and of theſe it has been found upon an average that nearly two out of three are

reſtored to their underſtanding. There are, however, generally about two hundred upon the incurable liſt. When a patient after ſufficient trial is judged incurable, he is diſmiſſed from the hoſpital, and if he is pronounced to be dangerous either to himſelf or to others, his name is entered in a book, that he may be received in turn among the incurables maintained in the houſe whenever a vacancy ſhall happen; but as the inſtances of longevity are frequent in ſuch caſes, they are uſually obliged to wait ſix or ſeven years after their diſmiſſion, before they can be re-admitted. This increaſing and melancholy evil has induced many benevolent perſons to appropriate their bounty to the neceſſities of incurables, and this has alſo led many erroneouſly to ſuppoſe that this hoſpital was connected with that of St. Luke.

The admiſſion of patients is attended with very little difficulty. It is firſt neceſſary to conſider whether the caſe includes any of thoſe circumſtances which prudence has dictated to be objections; theſe are few in number, mopes, idiots, women with child, perſons afflicted with the palſy, blindneſs, lameneſs, ſubject to convulſive or epileptic fits, venereal diſeaſe, itch, and ſuch as are weak through age and long illneſs: and, on the other hand, no perſon is conſidered as diſqualified who may have been diſcharged uncured from any other lunatic hoſpital. The forms of the petition and of certificates of legal ſettlement are delivered gratis at the ſteward's office, which, when properly inſerted, are to be accompanied by a governor's recommendation; and upon admiſſion, two houſekeepers, reſident in or near London, enter into a bond to take away the patient when properly diſcharged by the committee, and to pay the expenſe of clothes and burial in caſe of death. If the lunatic is ſent by a pariſh, or any other public body, 3*l.* 4*s.* is paid for bedding; but if he is placed there by friends, the ſum is benevolently reduced to 2*l.* 5*s.* 6*d.*; a ſupply of clothing is alſo expected, on failure of which, the hoſpital ſupplies that article, and charges the amount to the bondſmen, one ſet of which for men amounts to about 3*l.* 8*s.*, and for women to 2*l.* 6*s.* Where the lunatic is judged a fit object for this charity, he is delivered to the ſteward, who, under the direction of the phyſician, aſſigns him ſuch a degree of care and confinement as his caſe may require: the cells are viſited early every morning by the ſervants of the houſe, who make their report to the apothecary, who is conſtantly reſident in the hoſpital; he follows their report by his perſonal inſpection; the phyſician viſits three times every week; and certain days are fixed for the proper medical

operations, and the hot and cold bath are uſed when neceſſary. Every patient is indulged with ſuch liberty of walking in the long galleries as may be properly conſiſtent with his own and the general ſafety. In the winter ſeaſon there are rooms with comfortable fires, defended by large iron guards, where the convaleſcent meet and aſſociate; and in the ſummer time, in the adjoining court-yards.

The hoſpital uſed formerly to derive a revenue of at leaſt 400*l.* a-year from the indiſcriminate admiſſion of viſitants, whom very often an idle and wanton curioſity drew to theſe regions of diſtreſs; but this liberty was found to counteract the great deſign of recovery by tranquillity, and was therefore aboliſhed in 1770, by expreſs order, ſince which time the houſe has ſcarcely ever been open to ſtrangers, unleſs particularly introduced. At the patient's departure he is encouraged to apply to the medical officer for advice and medicines proper to prevent a relapſe, and in caſes of pecuniary diſtreſs, the treaſurer and phyſician poſſeſs a diſcretionary power to relieve him with a ſmall ſum of money.

BRIDEWELL, Has already been noticed in this Volume, (p. 529.)

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL. Of this eſtabliſhment alſo, ſome account is given in this Volume, p. 84.

SAINT THOMAS'S. This hoſpital was eſtabliſhed for the ſame purpoſes as that of St. Bartholemew; it is ſituated on the eaſt ſide of the borough of Southwark; Camden and Maitland agree in ſtating, that it owes its foundation to a caſual fire which happened in that neighbourhood in the year 1207, which deſtroyed the priory of Saint Mary over Rhe; the canons erected an hoſpital near the ſpot, for the celebration of maſs until the monaſtery could be rebuilt; this was ſoon after accompliſhed; but Peter de Rupibus, biſhop of Wincheſter, for the greater convenience of air and water, removed the hoſpital in 1215, and erected it in a place where Richard, prior of Bermondſey, had only two years before built an almoury, or alms-houſe, for the reception of indigent children and neceſſitous proſelytes; and having dedicated it to St. Thomas the apoſtle, endowed it with land to the value of 343*l.* per annum, from which time it was held of the abbot of Bermondſey, and ſince of the biſhops of Wincheſter, who were its patrons at the time of the Reformation, when its value was eſtimated at 266*l.* 17*s.* 6*d.*: it was ſurrendered to the crown in 1538, by Nicholas Buckland, the then maſter. Beſides the eſtates belonging to this hoſpital, was the ſite of an ancient manſion-houſe,

houſe, called Skinner's-place, forty acres of land, with certain rents and ſervices in Weſt Greenwich, in Kent, which was conveyed in 1349, by Ralph Nonthey, to William, biſhop of Wincheſter, and others, who conveyed them in the ſame year to this hoſpital. In 1551 the mayor and citizens of London having purchaſed of Edward VI. the manor of Southwark, for the ſum of 647*l.* 2*s.* 1*d.*, which compriſed the ſite of this hoſpital, repaired and enlarged it at an expence of 1100*l.*, and in the following month of November, received into it 260 poor, ſick, and helpleſs objects, upon which the king, in 1553, incorporated it with St. Bartholomew, Bridewell, Bethlem, and Chriſt's Hoſpitals. Although the great fire of London did not reach this place, yet the revenues of this hoſpital ſuffered conſiderable injury by it, and alſo by three great fires in Southwark in 1676, 1681, and 1689, and further by the decay of ſome of its buildings, which were very ancient, and in a low, damp, and incommodious ſituation, unfit for the reception of the ſick; a ſubſcription for the purpoſe of rebuilding them was therefore ſet on foot, and this great object was accompliſhed in 1693, when the buildings were erected, conſiſting of three quadrangles, one facing the ſtreet, and two interior ſquares: the three wards on the ſouth ſide of the firſt were erected at the charge of Thomas Guy, citizen and ſtationer, in 1707; and three on the north ſide by Thomas Frederic, Eſq., one of the governors, in 1708: the whole containing nineteen wards and four hundred and ſeventy-four beds, which are always occupied; and many out-patients are alſo relieved. To this a new building was added in 1732, conſiſting of ſeveral wards, a brewhouſe, and offices, at the expence of the funds of the charity; ſo that it now conſiſts of four quadrangular courts, in the firſt of which are wards for women; in the ſecond two chapels, the ſmalleſt of which is for the private uſe of the hoſpital, and the largeſt is for parochial uſe; in the ſame court, and adjoining to them, are the houſes of the treaſurer and other officers: in the third court are wards for men; and the fourth contains wards, hot and cold baths, a ſurgery, theatre, apothecary's ſhop, &c. Although it does not appear that there were any eſtates annexed to the city's original purchaſe of this hoſpital, yet the beneficence of the corporation and their fellow-citizens, and others, contributed to raiſe a very conſiderable endowment, ſo as to ſecure the permanent objects of it, and even to extend its deſigns; and its progreſſive utility has been proved by the increaſe of the perſons who have required

quired its relief; their number, including out-patients, may be taken at an average of ſix or ſeven years at nine thouſand, and the expenditure at about 10,000*l.*

Beſides theſe royal hoſpitals, there are

Beth Holim, At Mile-end, Old-town. An hoſpital or infirmary for receiving the ſick, poor, and aged men and women, and lying-in women, of the community of Spaniſh and Portugueſe Jews, inſtituted by voluntary contributions in 1748.

German and Dutch Jews' Hospital, At Mile-end, Old-town. This eſtabliſhment aroſe from the philanthropic exertions of Benjamin and Abraham Goldſmid, Eſqrs., who, in 1795, commenced a collection among their friends for a fund, to form a charitable inſtitution of more extent than that of Beth Holim. It was founded on the 17th of February 1806, and opened on the 28th of June 1807

Cancer Institution. A ſociety was formed in June 1803, for the purpoſe of inveſtigating the nature of this afflicting malady. It was carried on ſome time, but diſcontinued; a portion of the ſubſcription ſtill remains in the funds, in the names of truſtees, to await a more favourable opportunity for renewing the progreſs of the charity: it is however to be remembered that ſeveral wards in the eſtabliſhed hoſpitals have been wholly appropriated to the cure or relief of cancer.

Emanuel Hospital, Tothill-fields, Weſtminſter. This eſtabliſhment owes its foundation to Gregory, Lord Dacre, in the time of Queen Elizabeth. He intended to have given 110*l.* in money, toward building it, and 40*l.* a-year in lands for ever, toward the relief of aged people, and bringing up of children in virtue and good and laudable arts; his lordſhip dying before his intentions were executed, his lady took up the plan and carried it into effect.

The Fever Hospital, Conſtitution-row, Gray's-Inn-lane. In 1801, ſome papers were publiſhed by eminent phyſicians, and by the ſociety for bettering the condition of the poor, relative to the prevention and cure of contagious fevers. In May, a meeting was held for forming an inſtitution in the metropolis. The Duke of Somerſet, the Earl of Pomfret, Dr. Porteus, Biſhop of London, and Dr. Barrington, Biſhop of Durham, who was called to the chair, together with many reſpectable inhabitants, were preſent. On the certificates of many eminent phyſicians, they adopted unanimouſly, upon the motion of Lord Sheffield, the reſolutions declaratory of the prevalence of fever, and that it might be prevented by cleanſing and purifying the clothes, furniture

furniture and apartments of perſons attacked; and by removing them from ſituations where infection would be inevitable. A ſubſcription was opened, and an inſtitution formed for checking the progreſs of fever in the metropolis, and for removing the cauſes of infection from the dwellings of the poor, upon a plan ſimilar to that which had been adopted with great ſucceſs at Mancheſter. Meaſures were immediately taken to give effect to theſe benevolent intentions, and in 1802 the hoſpital was opened.

SAINT GEORGE'S HOSPITAL, Hyde-park-corner. The ſite of this hoſpital was formerly the ſeat of James Lane, Viſcount Laneſborough, who died there in 1724. This undertaking was ſet on foot ſoon after Michaelmas 1733, by ſome gentlemen who were before concerned in a ſimilar charity in the lower part of Weſtminſter. The ſubſcription increaſed ſo faſt, that on the 19th of October, they were formed into a regular ſociety, and began to receive patients on the 1ſt of January following. The patients conſiſt of all ſuch poor, ſick, and lame, being recommended according to the rules, as the hoſpital will contain. They are ſupplied with advice, medicine, diet, waſhing, lodging, and ſome of the pooreſt with clothes alſo. The phyſicians viſit their patients on Mondays and Fridays, and on intermediate days, whenever occaſion requires; and the ſurgeons every day; and on every Friday morning there is a general conſultation of all the phyſicians and ſurgeons.

To this hoſpital is annexed a ſociety ſimilar in its purpoſe and effect to that at the London Hoſpital; it is called

The Charity for Convaleſcents of St. George's Hoſpital. This inſtitution was formed by a ſeparate ſubſcription in 1809, and the principal objects to which the money is applied are, the purchaſe of flannel waiſtcoats, and linen; expences of removing into the country; boarding convaleſcents in ſome poor families in the neighbourhood till they are able to work; ſending the poor to the hoſpitals at Bath or Margate; the purchaſe of truſſes, or other inſtruments, for the ſecurity or convenience of the ſick, and remuneration to the collector for extra trouble, or ſalary to an additional officer for looking after the concerns of the charity.

GUY'S HOSPITAL, Southwark. This noble eſtabliſhment was founded and endowed by the munificence of one citizen of London, named Thomas Guy, a bookſeller. From the moſt inconſiderable beginnings, he amaſſed, by the joint effects of induſtry, economy, and good fortune, a prodigious ſum of money. The completion of this hoſpital in 1724 and the following years

years coſt upwards of 20,000*l.*, and 200,000*l.* were left as a fund to ſupport it. An act of incorporation was obtained, and the bleſſing of this foundation it is to be hoped will be preſerved to the nation for ever. His charity was not confined to this great monument of his fame: he founded, at Tamworth, in Staffordſhire, where his mother was born, alms-houſes for fourteen men and women, and a library, and beſtowed many liberal benefactions; he bequeathed to Chriſt's Hoſpital a perpetual annuity of 400*l.*, for receiving four children yearly, at the nomination of the governors of his own hoſpital, preference being given to his own kin: to his poor relations he bequeathed annuities for life to the amount of 870*l.*, and among his younger relations and executors 75,589*l.*, and 1000*l.* for diſcharging poor priſoners within the city and the counties of Middleſex and Surrey, who could be releaſed for 5*l.*; by which legacy, and good management of his executors, above ſix hundred poor priſoners were ſet at liberty. And in addition to theſe bequeſts he alſo left a perpetual annuity of 125*l.* for the further ſupport of his fourteen alms-houſes, and putting out apprentices.

THE LOCK HOSPITAL, Hyde-park-corner, was inſtituted on the 4th of July 1746, for the relief of venereal patients only. No patient is admitted a ſecond time.

THE LOCK ASYLUM is an appendage to the hoſpital, for the reception and reform of the female patients after their cure.

LONDON HOSPITAL, Whitechapel-road. This charity was inſtituted the 3d of November 1740, chiefly by John Harriſon, Eſq., its firſt ſurgeon, a buſt of whom is placed in the committee-room. Four houſes were taken in Preſcot-ſtreet, Goodman's-fields, and furniſhed with 136 beds; but the beneficence of the public enabled the managers to contract for the purchaſe of a large piece of ground on the ſouth ſide of the road leading from Whitechapel to Bow, on which they erected the preſent extenſive building. The work was wholly completed by voluntary contributions, and remains a monument of the virtue and charity chiefly of the inhabitants of the eaſtern part of the metropolis, the ſhores of the Thames, and their vicinity. A charter of incorporation was obtained, dated the 2d December 1759. The patients relieved in this hoſpital conſiſt of ſick and wounded ſeamen, watermen, coalheavers, ſhipwrights, ropemakers, and labourers in the ſeveral docks and on the quays, to whom its ſituation, contiguous to the river Thames, is of peculiar advantage; beſide theſe, the numerous claſſes of manu-

manufacturers of all kinds in Spital-fields, Bethnal-green, and the eaſtern parts of the metropolis, find here a ready aſylum in their ſickneſs, as well as for their wives and children.

The Samaritan Society. The conſulting-room in the London Hoſpital was allotted in 1792 for the meetings and buſineſs of this ſociety. The objects are correctly expreſſed in the following inſcription placed in the room: "The Samaritan Society: an appendage to the London Hoſpital, for the relief and prevention of various circumſtances of diſtreſs not within the proviſion of public hoſpitals: inſtituted A. D. 1791; depends for its means of adminiſtering comfort, and obtaining permanency, upon donations and bequeſts."

Saint Luke's Hospital, Old-ſtreet. This inſtitution was ſet on foot in 1751, by a few benevolent perſons, who, obſerving that the hoſpitals then eſtabliſhed were not capable of receiving all the lunatic patients who applied for relief, opened a ſubſcription for a new hoſpital, under the name of *Saint Luke's Hoſpital for Lunatics*, which has ſince enjoyed a large portion of the patronage and ſupport of the public. The original eſtabliſhment was on the north ſide of the Upper Moorfields, called Windmill-hill; the firſt ſtone was laid by the late Duke of Montague, as preſident, on the 30th of July 1732; it was completely finiſhed and opened for the reception of patients on the 1ſt of July 1737; the eſtate was leaſehold, held of the corporation of London, and as the accommodations were not ſufficiently extenſive to receive more than one hundred and ten patients, it was deemed moſt advantageous to ſuffer the leaſe to expire, and to ſeek a larger ground-plot. The preſent extenſive building coſt 5000*l.*, which was raiſed by voluntary contributions. It ſtands upon leaſehold ground belonging to Saint Bartholemew's Hoſpital; the leaſe is held for a term of forty years, renewable every fourteen years on payment of a fine of 200*l.*, and at the yearly rent of 200*l.* It was completely finiſhed at the cloſe of the year 1786, and on the 1ſt of January 1787, which was exactly fifty years after the firſt foundation, the patients were removed into it.

The Queen's Lying-in Hospital, Bayſwater. In 1752, this hoſpital was firſt eſtabliſhed at a houſe in Saint George's-row, near the turnpike, entering upon the Uxbridge road, where it was inſtituted to embrace the twofold benefit of receiving poor pregnant women, as well married as unmarried, and alſo of attending them at their own

own habitations, within a limited circuit. About 1794 it was removed to the houſe now occupied for the charity at Bayſwater, and was honoured with the patronage of her majeſty, whoſe name was accordingly prefixed to its title.

THE BRITISH LYING-IN HOSPITAL, Brownlow-ſtreet. This inſtitution was eſtabliſhed in November 1749, under the patronage of the Duke of Portland. The firſt patients were received on the 7th of December.

THE CITY OF LONDON LYING-IN HOSPITAL, City-road. The firſt annunciation of this charity was in the year 1750, by the title of the "Hoſpital for married women in the city of London and parts adjacent, and alſo for ſick and lame out-patients in phyſic and ſurgery:" but it does not appear whether it had any particular founder. A few gentlemen, deſirous of promoting an object ſo benevolent, hired apartments in London-houſe, Alderſgate, which they converted into wards. In the following year, 1751, the hoſpital was removed to Shafteſbury-houſe, in the ſame ſtreet; the directors curtailed the original plan, diſcontinued the reception of out-patients, and aſſumed a new title, which the inſtitution ſtill retains, of "The city of London lying-in hoſpital for married women." The increaſe of ſubſcriptions in eighteen years enabled the governors to erect their preſent hoſpital, which was finiſhed and inhabited in April 1773.

WESTMINSTER LYING-IN HOSPITAL, Near the Bridge. This hoſpital, inſtituted in 1765, was principally deſigned as an aſylum for the wives of poor induſtrious tradeſmen, or diſtreſſed houſekeepers, who either by unavoidable misfortunes, or the burthen of large families, might be reduced to want, and rendered incapable of bearing the expences incident to the pregnant and lying-in ſtate; and alſo for the wives of indigent ſoldiers and ſailors; the former, particularly, being very numerous in and about the city of Weſtminſter. The governors, however, having received many repreſentations of the ſevere hardſhips ſuſtained by unmarried women in the ſtate of pregnancy, who are not admitted into other hoſpitals, and reflecting on the numerous inſtances where unfortunate women of this deſcription, overwhelmed with ſhame, and deſtitute of friends, have been tempted to deſtroy themſelves or their infants, unanimouſly reſolved to admit ſuch of them to participate of the benefits of this charity as ſhould be found to be objects of real diſtreſs; but none of this claſs are admitted a ſecond time.

THE

THE MAGDALEN HOSPITAL, Saint George's-fields. This inſtitution was founded in the year 1758, for the reception, maintenance, and employment, and with a view to reclaim penitent proſtitutes, in a building hired for the purpoſe in Preſcot-ſtreet, where the ſupport it received, and the applications for admiſſion ſo much increaſed, in the firſt ten years, that it became neceſſary to remove it. Robert Dingley and Philip Milloway, Eſqrs., were among its conſiderable benefactors, and in their names ſeveral pieces of land, containing together about ſix acres, but lying diſperſedly in Saint George's-fields, were purchaſed out of the funds of the charity, and conveyed to them as truſtees for the erection of a new hoſpital; but the governors not having power to make ſuch exchanges as were neceſſary to poſſeſs the whole in one plot, and many perſons having a general right of common there at certain ſeaſons of the year, they were encouraged to apply to parliament for an act of incorporation, which was granted in 1769, by the name of "The preſident, vice-preſidents, treaſurer, and governors of the Magdalen Hoſpital, for the reception of penitent proſtitutes." The new hoſpital was opened in the year 1758. During the period that it has ſubſiſted, more than two-thirds of the women who have been admitted have been reconciled to their friends, or placed in honeſt employments, or reputable ſervices.

THE MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL, Berner's-ſtreet. This hoſpital was inſtituted in Auguſt 1745, for the reception of ſick and lame patients, and in July 1747, an additional proviſion was made for the relief of lying-in married women; alſo to ſupply the indigent and laborious poor of both ſexes with advice, medicine, diet, lodging, and other neceſſaries, when afflicted with diſeaſe, or rendered by accident incapable of ſupporting themſelves and families: and further, in the year 1792, through the munificence of a humane benefactor, an eſtabliſhment has been provided for patients afflicted with cancer.

THE LONDON FEMALE PENITENTIARY, Pentonville. More applications having been made at the Magdalen than could be complied with; inſtead of forming any plan to extend its accommodations, this inſtitution was founded in 1807. It was eſtabliſhed on the benevolent principle of affording prompt reception to all females who had fallen into vice, and were deſirous of being reformed. A meeting was held at the London Tavern on the 1ſt of January 1807, when the plan of the inſtitution was reſolved, the qualifications were limited, and the external management confided

confided to a committee of thirty-six gentlemen, and the interior to a committee of twenty-four married ladies. After many diligent inquiries, the committee fixed the eſtabliſhment at Cumming Houſe, Pentonville, by the purchaſe of a long leaſe of the houſe and adjoining ground, to which they have ſince added a contiguous building for a temporary infirmary. The penitentiary houſe is divided into ſix apartments: a temporary ward for caſes of emergency, two probationary wards, wards for perſons fully admitted after probation, a ward for diſeaſed ſubjects, a ſick ward, and a refractory ward: a part of the houſe is appropriated to divine ſervice, which it has not been deemed expedient to open to the public. The induſtry uniformly prevailing throughout the houſe encourages the hope that many females once devoted to vice and its concomitant, indolence, will be reſtored to prudence, and become uſeful members of ſociety. Their works are plain work, child-bed linen, fancy-work, ſpinning thread and worſted, knitting, making ladies' ſhoes and ſlippers, dreſs-making, glove-making, corſets, waſhing, and clear-ſtarching, ſpecimens of all which may be ſeen and orders given at the houſe.

THE HOSPITAL FOR POOR FRENCH PROTESTANTS, *and their deſcendants*, reſident in Great Britain. This hoſpital was built in 1716. Its title declares its purpoſes.

REFUGE FOR THE DESTITUTE, Cuper's Bridge. This inſtitution was founded in 1806 by voluntary contributions, for the purpoſe of providing a place of refuge for perſons diſcharged from priſon or the hulks, unfortunate and deſerted females, and others, who from loſs of character or extreme indigence cannot, though willing to work, procure an honeſt maintenance, and in caſes of very urgent neceſſity to afford temporary relief until parochial or other aſſiſtance can be obtained.

SEA-BATHING INFIRMARY *for the Poor of London*, Near Margate. To afford to the poor the benefits, in certain complaints, of ſea air and bathing, was the aim of this inſtitution. The facility and cheapneſs of conveyance by the packets to Margate pointed out that as the fitteſt place for the eſtabliſhment, which owes its origin to the benevolence and exertions of Dr. Lettſom, John Nichols, Eſq., and the Reverend John Pridden, his ſon-in-law. After vain attempts to hire, they determined to build a plain ſtructure, with the ſmalleſt poſſible expence, on a convenient ſpot at Weſtbrook, near Margate, which they purchaſed, in 1793, in their joint names. Their ſcheme was warmly eſpouſed by

by ſeveral benevolent perſons, who were convinced of the great benefit that would reſult from it to the poor of the metropolis. The houſe was opened for the reception of patients in 1796, and its progreſs has exceeded the moſt ſanguine expectations.

SMALL-POX AND INOCULATION HOSPITAL, St. Pancras. This hoſpital was provided for the reception of patients infected with the caſual ſmall-pox, and for inoculation; where, being ſeparated from the reſt of the community, they might enjoy peace and quiet, ſkill and medicine to promote their recovery, and overcome the ſufferings and privations which their poverty in ſome caſes, and their mode of living in others, had increaſed. Here every neceſſary comfort is ſupplied; and the hardſhips to which they were expoſed are leſſened and aſſuaged. The inſtitution of this uſeful and humane eſtabliſhment, which was the firſt of the kind in Europe, originated in the benevolence of a few generous individuals, who in the year 1745 were deſirous that a charity of this nature ſhould be founded near the metropolis. Their firſt meeting was held in the veſtry-room of the church of St. Paul, Covent Garden, on Wedneſday, 11th February 1746, and by perſevering efforts their good intentions were crowned with complete ſucceſs. The place of reception was often changed, and more eſtabliſhments than one were maintained at the ſame time; but finally the houſe at Battle-bridge, St. Pancras, the ſite of which was purchaſed in 1762, became the only receptacle for perſons to receive the ſmall-pox.

WESTMINSTER HOSPITAL, James-ſtreet. This hoſpital claims the ſeniority of all others of its kind; it was inſtituted in the year 1719, at the expence and contribution of ſeveral benevolent individuals, "for the relief of the ſick and needy from all parts;" and, from their example, many ſimilar works of charity have ariſen.

QUAKERS' WORKHOUSE. In Bridewell-walk, Clerkenwell, is a burial ground of inconſiderable ſize, and near it the remains of the Quakers' Workhouſe, which the "New View of London" ſays, was founded about the year 1692, for the maintenance of fifty decayed people of that perſuaſion, who were allowed lodging and diet, and employed in their ſeveral profeſſions by the governors. It has fallen into decay many years paſt, and what remains is let to poor occupants at very low rents. According to Maitland, it ſupported eighteen old men and ſixty children, who had 5*l.* apprentice fee. The ſame inſtitution exiſts in a new and moſt commodious building in the Goſwell-ſtreet road,

near Iſlington; the houſe was erected about the year 1786, on a large ſquare of ground belonging to the Brewers' company, which is held by the inſtitution at a rent of 16*l.* a-year for the firſt ninety years, and the remainder ſubject to an increaſe of 34*l.* a-year. It is uſed for a meeting, which is held monthly on a Friday morning, and for the purpoſe of a charity-ſchool. Apartments are provided in a neat houſe facing it, for twelve men and twelve women, being poor and of the ſociety of friends. The number of boys and girls is not limited. Six different meetings in London, together with ſome legacies and voluntary contributions, ſupport the charity, and provide rewards for thoſe females who preſerve the places obtained for them, which are thirty ſhillings for the firſt and forty ſhillings for the ſecond and third years; if they behave with propriety, they are allowed 40*l.* as a marriage portion, and 20*l.* to the boys.

Saint Katherine's Hospital, Near the Tower, was founded by Matilda of Boulogne, the Queen of King Stephen, earlier than the year 1148; it has been augmented by ſeveral queens of England, in whom the patronage has always remained, and this does not abate by a queen's becoming dowager. The original foundreſs inſtituted this hoſpital as a priory for the repoſe of her ſon Baldwin and daughter Matilda, and for the maintenance of a maſter, brothers and ſiſters, and other poor perſons. At the diſſolution of religious houſes, this was valued at 315*l.* 4*s.* 2*d.*, and was not involved in their general deſtruction, being the only eccleſiaſtical preferment belonging to the queen conſort. During the commonwealth its revenues were alſo preſerved, and one Richard Kent was the preacher there, choſen by the people, who received annually towards his maintenance from the hoſpital 10*l.*, and from the inhabitants about 45*l.* In 1658, Samuel Slater was appointed the preacher, at a ſalary of 40*l.*; at preſent two of the brothers receive 40*l.* each of the ſiſters 10*l.* and each of the bedeſwomen 8*l.* a-year; the reſt of the revenues are divided among the maſters, brothers, and ſiſters.

Saint Mary's Hospital, Great Ilford, Eſſex. The hoſpital at this place, dedicated to the Virgin Mary and Saint Thomas the Martyr, was founded by Adeliza, abbeſs of Barking, in the reign of King Stephen, for a prior, a warden or maſter, two prieſts, and thirteen poor infirm brethren or lepers.

Whitgift's Hospital, Croydon. In 1596, Archbiſhop Whitgift founded this hoſpital; it was finiſhed on the 29th

of September 1599, and endowed with lands for the maintenance of a warden, ſchoolmaſter, and twenty-eight poor brethren and ſiſters, and a number, not to exceed forty, if the revenues ſhould not admit of it. The ſchoolmaſter, who is alſo chaplain, is allowed by the ſtatutes 20*l.* per annum, the warden 11*l.*, and the other members 5*l.* each. The nomination of the brethren and ſiſters was veſted by the founder in his ſucceſſors in the ſee of Canterbury, whom he appointed alſo to be viſitors. Whenever that ſee ſhall happen to be vacant, the rector of Lambeth and the vicar of Croydon are to fill up the places. The perſons to be admitted muſt be ſixty years of age at leaſt; inhabitants of Croydon and Lambeth are to be preferred.

DISPENSARIES, LYING-IN AND MEDICAL CHARITIES. On theſe eſtabliſhments Mr. Highmore offers the following obſervations. Among the inſtitutions for relief of the diſeaſes, accidents, and infirmities of the poor, the hoſpital and the infirmary, as compriſing within them every benefit which can reſult from comfortable accommodation, proper diet, conſtant attendance, and profeſſional ſkill, claim in many inſtances a decided preference. Caſes, however, obviouſly and frequently occur, wherein medical aid may be adminiſtered to the indigent with equal efficacy, though at a far more moderate expence, and in a far more eligible manner. The removal of the patient from his own habitation is frequently unneceſſary, and often dangerous; whilſt that immenſe multitude of objects which fall under the deſcription of out-patients, cannot obtain ſubſtantial relief, but at a coſt exceeding the revenues of the moſt liberally founded hoſpital, and by a degree of time and attention ſcarcely compatible with that which is demanded by the more urgent and afflicting circumſtances of the patients within. And even of thoſe who are actually admitted as out-patients, a great majority, when, by the aggravation of the diſeaſe, they become unable to attend in perſon, muſt neceſſarily be deſerted in the very hour of diſtreſs and danger.

When diſpenſaries were firſt inſtituted, there was wanting ſome charitable inſtitution between the hoſpital and the poorhouſe; for the former afforded relief only to the ſick, who would become its temporary inhabitants, and whoſe diſeaſes required confinement and attendance; and the latter was deſigned to give comfort and protection to the aged, who were deſtitute of domeſtic accommodation. Under this impreſſion, it was natural for a humane and generous people to ſuggeſt and contrive an intermediate arrangement

that ſhould embrace the requiſites to which neither of theſe would apply, where the poor and induſtrious mechanic and his family might receive medical advice in all caſes, where confinement was not neceſſary, or where, if it was, the patient had ſufficient accommodation at home: ſuch caſes, in the number of which thoſe of midwifery form no inconſiderable part, are happily by far the moſt numerous of the diſeaſes incidental to the human frame. Hence the eſtabliſhment of *diſpenſaries* aroſe, an inſtitution, in the conſtitution of which the ſick, the hurt, and the lying-in woman, can receive aſſiſtance, in many caſes preferably to a removal. By this ſyſtem, medical charity has been very widely and profitably extended, in aid of, and by no means in oppoſition to, or in competition with, hoſpitals; for diſpenſaries have been founded with an equal view to relieve both the deſcriptions of objects above mentioned, by affording medical and ſurgical aſſiſtance to ſuch as are able to apply for it, upon their perſonal attendance, and to all others at their own habitations. Theſe inſtitutions being exempted from many articles of expence, which fall heavieſt upon hoſpitals, may of courſe be ſupported by proportionably ſmaller contributions; and hence a very numerous body of the public obtain an opportunity of exerciſing their benevolence in equal meaſure with thoſe in more affluent circumſtances.

The laborious poor are expoſed to diſeaſes peculiar to themſelves, ariſing from changes of weather, from their confined and crowded habitations, from unhealthy and ſedentary employments, and accidental injuries, and to all theſe is to be ſuperadded the neceſſity, to which the opulent are ſcarcely ever called upon to ſubmit, of purſuing their exertions in their reſpective employments, while they are labouring under the oppreſſion of diſeaſe, or perhaps under the diſcipline of a courſe of medicine; to ſuch perſons diſpenſaries are neceſſary eſtabliſhments.

The diſpenſaries in the metropolis are numerous; and beſide preſcribing for the patients who are able to attend at theſe inſtitutions, the phyſicians viſit at their own habitations, thoſe of the recommended who are confined by the ſeverity of diſeaſe. It is thus that from the eaſtern extremity of Limehouſe to the weſtern at Milbank, and on the north from Iſlington and Somers Town to the ſouth as far as Lambeth, and, by means of the Greenwich diſpenſary, to Newington and Peckham, including a ſpace of nearly fifty ſquare miles, a ſyſtem of medical relief is extended to the poor, unknown in any other part of the globe.

Dr. Lettſom ſuppoſes, that the diſpenſaries have afforded relief to 50,000 poor people annually, one-third of whom, at leaſt, are attended at their own habitations, a mode of relief which keeps the branches of the family from being ſeparated; and affords an opportunity for the wife to nurſe the ſick huſband or child, or the huſband to ſuperintend and protect the ſick wife, which naturally tends to augment the tender affections. By this mode of conveying relief to the houſes of the poor, the expence is trivial indeed, as one guinea, which is an annual ſubſcription of a governor, affords the means of relief to at leaſt ten patients. Hence 50,000 patients are annually relieved for 5000*l.*; a ſum not exceeding one-third of the revenue of a ſingle hoſpital in London, which relieves ſcarcely 6000 patients in a year.

In addition to the advantages of diſpenſaries, it may be urged, with truth, that they render leſs frequent the neceſſity of parochial relief, and in this way at once prevent an increaſe of expence to a pariſh, and keep up, in the mind of the poor, the honeſt, uſeful, and laudable ſpirit of independent induſtry.

After this ample detail of the ſcope and benefit of theſe eſtabliſhments, nothing more than an enumeration will be neceſſary, except in a few extraordinary inſtances.

THE BLOOMSBURY DISPENSARY, No. 62. Great Ruſſell-ſtreet. Inſtituted 1801.

THE CHARITABLE FUND AND DISPENSARY, No. 8. Lilypot-lane. This inſtitution embraces a plan of benevolence different in its principle from moſt others of a ſimilar kind, which adminiſter to the wants of ſickneſs only, but this profeſſes to adminiſter to all the wants of the ſufferers, by ſuperadding to that of medicine and advice, pecuniary aid, ſuch as may be conducive to recovery, as far as its funds will allow.

THE EASTERN DISPENSARY, Alie-ſtreet, Whitechapel. Inſtituted 1782.

THE LONDON ELECTRICAL DISPENSARY, City Road. This diſpenſary was eſtabliſhed in 1793, and the particular object of it is to adminiſter electricity in all complaints in which its application may be uſeful.

THE ROYAL INFIRMARY FOR THE EYE, Naſſau-ſtreet. This charity was eſtabliſhed in 1808, under the patronage of the King and Queen, the Prince of Wales, and others of the Royal Family, on the repreſentation of Mr. Wathen Philipps, the eminent oculiſt.

THE LONDON INFIRMARY FOR THE EYE, Charterhouſe Square. This inſtitution is ſimilar to the preceding, and was founded in 1808.

THE FINSBURY DISPENSARY, St. John's Square. Eſtabliſhed in 1780.

The new Finſbury and central Diſpenſary, Weſt Smithfield. Inſtituted in 1786.

THE GENERAL DISPENSARY, Alderſgate-ſtreet. Inſtituted in 1770.

THE LONDON DISPENSARY, Artillery-ſtreet, opened in 1777.

THE BENEVOLENT INSTITUTION. For the ſole purpoſe of delivering poor married women at their own habitations. Begun in 1780. The boundaries of this charity, beyond which the midwives are not to go, are the undermentioned diſtances, viz. Lambeth, Chelſea, Brompton, Knightſbridge, Kenſington, Mary-le-bone, Paddington, Tottenham-court, Gray's Inn Lane-end, Iſlington, City Road, Shoreditch, Bethnal Green, and Whitechapel turnpikes, Ratcliffe Croſs, Dockhead, Grange Road, Kent-ſtreet, and Kenſington turnpikes, and the road from Blackman-ſtreet to Weſtminſter Bridge.

THE LYING-IN CHARITY. For delivering poor married women at their own habitations. This humane and uſeful inſtitution dates its riſe in the year 1757. The boundaries are Weſtminſter Bridge, Millbank, Pimlico, Hyde Park Corner, and Tyburn turnpikes, Portman-ſquare, Mary-le-bone, Tottenham-court, Gray's Inn Lane-end, St. John's-ſtreet, Pentonville as far as the chapel, and Iſlington, to Croſs-ſtreet, incluſive, Goſwell-ſtreet turnpike to the City Road, and Shoreditch workhouſe, Hackney turnpike, Bethnal Green turnpike, near the church, and to the Grove-houſe, Mile-end Old-town, Limehouſe-hole, Rotherhithe church, Grange Road, and Kent-ſtreet-end, Blackman-ſtreet turnpike, and the road from Blackman-ſtreet to Weſtminſter Bridge.

LYING-IN CHARITY, At Tottenham. In Auguſt 1791, eight ladies, of the pariſh of Tottenham High Croſs, Middleſex, united in a plan for the relief of their poor neighbours during their lying-in. They began their undertaking by a ſubſcription of 3*s.* or 3*s.* 6*d.* each for the purchaſe of linen, and afterwards appointed one of their number treaſurer and manager; and in order to ſupply a fund for allowing 5*s.* toward the payment of a midwife, and 6*s.* for a nurſe for each patient, they agreed to contribute 6*d.* a-piece weekly. The number of ſubſcribers increaſed. In the firſt year they relieved fourteen perſons, in the fourth year, ſixty-four, and in the ſeventh year, ninety-four. The ſociety, finding that the ſick ſtood as much in need of aſſiſtance as lying-in women,

men, extended its benefit to either without diſtinction; and, the funds having ſince conſiderably increaſed, a large number of bags of linen has been provided, and the manager is authorized to lend them, as long as the caſe requires, to all ſick perſons who are in want throughout the pariſh, where the diſeaſe is not of an infectious nature. A ſet of linen is lent to every lying-in and ſick patient, that receives a ticket from any ſubſcriber, for one month. Eleven ſhillings is paid to the lying-in patient to defray the charges of midwife and nurſe; and the ſame ſum is laid out for each ſick perſon, according to their wants, either in procuring neceſſary food, coals, or medicine, or, at the diſcretion of the governeſs, to be paid them in a weekly allowance. And one of the ſubſcribers is appointed by the reſt to preſide over and manage the affairs of the charity, ſubject to the control of an annual meeting. The utility of this plan has already recommended it to the inhabitants of ſeveral other places. Charities ſimilar in deſign, though varying in ſome particulars, have been eſtabliſhed, among other places, at Cambridge, Ipſwich, Colcheſter, Needham, Halſtead, Stoke Newington, Edmonton, Cheſhunt, Ware, Hertford, Woodford, Wanſtead, and Walthamſtow, &c. and privately by individuals.

THE ST. MARY-LE-BONE GENERAL DISPENSARY, No. 17, Welbeck-ſtreet. Inſtituted in 1785, for giving medicines and advice to the ſick poor, and pregnant women, gratis.

THE PUBLIC DISPENSARY, Biſhop's-court, Carey-ſtreet. Eſtabliſhed in 1783.

THE NEW RUPTURE SOCIETY. Founded in 1796.

CITY TRUSS SOCIETY, For the relief of the ruptured poor, No. 10. Grocers'-hall Court, Poultry. Inſtituted 1807.

SURRY DISPENSARY, Union-ſtreet, Southwark. Inſtituted 2d March 1777.

THE UNIVERSAL MEDICAL INSTITUTION, Tower Hamlets. Inſtituted A. D. 1792. In addition to all the advantages of a general diſpenſary, and which it poſſeſſes in common with ſimilar eſtabliſhments, this charity holds out others peculiar to itſelf. It affords relief by the uſe of cold, warm, and vapour baths, for relief in caſes of ſuſpended animation from drowning, ſuffocation, &c. Gentlemen of diſtinguiſhed medical abilities, and who are perfectly acquainted with the moſt approved mode of treatment in ſuch caſes, readily attend to lend their aſſiſtance; it compriſes alſo an eſtabliſhment for vaccination, and women are delivered at their own habitations. The limits for viſiting patients at their own habitations extend from the Tower-ſtairs (by the

river) to Poplar-gut; through Poplar to Stepney-green, acroſs Mile-end, up Red Cow-lane to Camden-row, Bethnal Green; from thence to Shoreditch turnpike, through Norton-falgate, Biſhopſgate-ſtreet, and Houndſditch, down Jewry-ſtreet and Savage-gardens, back to the Tower-ſtairs.

THE VACCINE DISPENSARIES. 1. *The Vaccine Pock Inſtitution*, Broad-ſtreet, Golden-ſquare. 2. *The Royal Jennerian Society*, Saliſbury-ſquare. 3. *The London Vaccine Inſtitution*. Conducted by Dr. John Walker, at No. 2, Saliſbury-ſquare, and in other places; and, 4. *The National Vaccine eſtabliſhment*, Leiceſter-ſquare, formed by Government, and conducted by the principal officers of the Royal Colleges of Phyſicians and Surgeons of London.

THE WESTMINSTER DISPENSARY, Charles-ſtreet, Weſtminſter. Eſtabliſhed in 1789.

WESTMINSTER GENERAL DISPENSARY, Gerrard-ſtreet. Inſtituted in 1774, under the patronage of His Royal Highneſs the Prince of Wales, for the relief of the ſick and lame poor, and pregnant women.

COLLEGES. Colleges conſiſt of an entire eſtabliſhment, upon a more enlarged plan than alms-houſes; their ſubſiſtence is generally more united; they are governed by a maſter and other incorporate officers, and meet at one board; and in one inſtance, the foundation alſo comprehends the maintenance and education of youth.

BROMLEY COLLEGE, Kent. Bromley College was founded by John Warner, Biſhop of Rocheſter, for the reſidence and maintenance of twenty widows of loyal and orthodox clergymen. By his will, dated in 1666, he authorized his executors, Sir Orlando Bridgman and Sir P. Warwick, to raiſe a ſum, adequate to the purpoſes of the building, out of his perſonal eſtate, and charged his manor of Swayton with the payment of 450*l.* viz. 50*l.* per annum for the chaplain, and 20*l.* each for the widows. The founder, not having made any proviſion for repairs, his executors, with conſent of his heir at law, charged the manor of Swayton with the further ſum of 5*l.* per annum; but, this being thought inſufficient, the executors generouſly gave 100*l.* each, with which a fee-farm rent was purchaſed; but ſtill this income was found much too ſmall to keep the building in a ſtate of decent repair, and the truſtees have been at times under the neceſſity of ſoliciting voluntary contributions for that purpoſe. The fund has ſince received ſeveral further augmentations.

GOD'S GIFT COLLEGE, Dulwich. The founder was Edward Alleyne, Eſq., a player of great celebrity, and a contemporary of Shakeſpeare. He realized a conſiderable fortune,

fortune, and retiring to Dulwich, where he had purchaſed an eſtate, he formed and executed his plan, ſuperintended the erection of his college, lived to ſee it finiſhed, and ſpent the remainder of his days in viſiting and being viſited by ſome of the moſt reſpectable perſons in the kingdom. He managed the affairs of the college till his death, not as maſter, as has been aſſerted, for he appointed his kinſmen Thomas and Matthias Alleyne, to be the firſt maſter and warden, immediately on completing the foundation, in 1619, though they did not aſſume the management of its affairs until after his deceaſe. He devoted the college to the maintenance, education, relief, and ſuſtenance of poor and needy people, men, women, and children of the pariſhes of St. Botolph without, Biſhopſgate, London, Saint Saviour's in Southwark, and of that part of the pariſh of Saint Giles without Cripplegate, London, which is in the county of Middleſex; and of the pariſh of Camberwell, in Surry. The corporation of this college is lord of the manor of Dulwich, and their eſtate being much increaſed by inclоſure and other acts, by additional donations, and by the advanced value of their landed eſtates, while the original number of perſons relieved has not been enlarged, a ſituation in God's Gift College is extremely deſirable, and approaches to opulence.

Morden College, Blackheath. Sir John Morden, Bart., who had raiſed his fortune as a Turkey merchant, found d this college under the ſanction of letters patent from William III., dated the 4th of November, 11 W. III. He placed in it during his life time, twelve decayed merchants; and by his will, dated 15th of October 1702, he deviſed all his real and copyhold eſtates to the Turkey Company; in truſt, after the deceaſe of his lady, for the ſupport of the college, and for the maintenance of poor, aged, and decayed merchants of England, whoſe fortunes had been ruined by the perils of the ſea, and other unavoidable accidents; allowing to each 20*l.* per annum. They were afterwards, owing to the change of the times, advanced to 40*l.* The penſioners muſt be ſingle men, either bachelors or widowers, members of the Church of England, and not leſs than fifty years of age; they are provided with medicines, coals, candles, and waſhing; the attendance of ſervants, and of a barber, and 2*l.* per month. The vacancies are filled up once a year, by the governors of the Turkey Company, by election; and proviſion was made, by the founder's will, that if this company ſhould fail, truſtees ſhould be choſen out of the directors of the Eaſt India Company.

Company. The treaſurer and the chaplain reſide in the college, and there are apartments for thirty penſioners.

SION COLLEGE, London-wall. The ancient ſite of this building was a nunnery, which, having fallen to decay, was purchaſed by William Elſynge, citizen and mercer, and converted into a college and hoſpital, called from his name Elſynge Spital, near Cripplegate, for a warden and four prieſts, and one hundred ſick perſons, in the year 1329; but, in the year 1340, he changed the college into an Auſtin priory, valued at 193*l.*, and, at his requeſt, the prieſts were decreed to be canons regular of the order of St. Auguſtin, of whom he became the prior, ſubject to the viſitation of the dean and chapter of Saint Paul's; the priory was afterward granted to Sir John Williams, maſter of the jewel office to Henry VIII., who, with Sir Rowland Hayward, inhabited it when it was deſtroyed by fire. In 1623, it was reſcued from oblivion by Doctor Thomas White, who, by his will, dated the 1ſt of October of that year, bequeathed 3000*l.* towards purchaſing and building a college and alms-houſe on the ancient ſite. The executors of his will, Simpſon and Kelynge, purchaſed the whole for 2450*l.* of Robert Parkhurſt, alderman, and erected the preſent college. It is held by two charters of incorporation, dated July 3, 6 Car. I., and June 20, 16 Car. II. By theſe authorities a preſident, two deans, and four aſſiſtants, with all the rectors and vicars, lecturers and curates, of the city and ſuburbs, were conſtituted to be a corporation, and alms-houſes for ten men and ten women were alſo eſtabliſhed. Dr. White had endowed theſe by a rent-charge of 120*l.* per annum, beſides 40*l.* per annum for the common charges of the college. The Biſhop of London is viſitor. In addition to the founder's benevolence, the college holds a farm in Hertfordſhire by the deviſe of Brewer, in 1684.

ALMS-HOUSES. In a former part of this volume (ſee p. 447.) an account was given of the ſums annually expended in charity by the principal companies of the city. In the following liſt the ſituation and ſcope of their alms-houſes alone will be mentioned, and an enumeration follows of the other principal eſtabliſhments of the ſame claſs near the metropolis.

CLOTHWORKERS. There are two ſets of alms-houſes belonging to this company, at Alms-lane, Lower-ſtreet, Iſlington; the one for ten men of the company, and the other for the ſame number of women, founded in 1648, by J. Heath. And they are inveſted with the truſt of another, founded by Lady Anne Packington, in 1560, in Whitefriars, for

for eight poor women. They are alſo truſtees for the alms-houſe at Friern-Barnet.

COOPERS. The alms-houſes veſted in this company are ſituated at Ratcliffe, and were founded for the reception of ſix of their poor members, in 1613, by Toby Wood, Eſq.

DRAPERS. Among the charities, the adminiſtration of which is veſted in the drapers company, is a very ancient one, eſtabliſhed on the ſouth weſt ſide of the town of Greenwich, where the roads branch off to London and Lewiſham; it is an hoſpital conſiſting of twenty ſmall tenements with gardens, which ſtand very low, and are ſeparated by a dwarf wall from the London road; it was founded and endowed A.D. 1576, by William Lambard, author of the Perambulation of Kent, with the title of "Queen Elizabeth's College," for twenty poor perſons: he committed it to the truſt of the maſter of the rolls (for the time being) and the drapers' company. It is ſaid to be the firſt hoſpital which was founded by a proteſtant. The drapers' company are alſo the truſtees for the management of the alms-houſes of Francis Bancroft, citizen and draper, mentioned hereafter. The drapers have concern in another alms-houſe, in Mile-end road, founded in 1698, by John Pernell, for four poor drapers' widows, and four widows of ſeamen, belonging to the pariſh of Alpney, who have been in the ſervice of the Eaſt India Company; they receive a penſion of 4*l.* each, 1*l.* for a gown, and 1*l.* for coals. They have alſo an alms-houſe for four men and eight women, founded by John Walter, in 1651, on the ſouth ſide of the road leading from Weſtminſter to Blackman-ſtreet, in the pariſh of Newington, Surry, which has the privilege of appointing ſix of its own pariſhioners; they receive 5*s.* each monthly, and half a chaldron of coals, to which the pariſh officers add a weekly penſion as they ſee fit. The remainder are appointed by the company. And alſo another of the ſame founder, in 1651, at Newington Butts, for ſixteen poor men and women; and a third, of the ſame founder, in 1658, in Old-ſtreet, for eight poor widows. They are likewiſe inveſted with the truſt of an alms-houſe for twelve poor perſons, at Bromley, in Middleſex, founded by John Edmonſon, Eſq., in 1706. And alſo, conjointly with the pariſh of Shoreditch, another in Kingſland road, for twelve ſingle men and women, founded in 1713, by Samuel Harmar. And alſo of another endowed in 1535, by Sir John Milbourne, lord mayor in 1521, in Woodroffe-lane, Crutched-friars, for fifteen poor drapers.

DYERS.

DYERS. The alms-houſes veſted in this company were founded in White's Alley, Holborn, but have been long ſince removed to the City-road. In 1776, the company erected an alms-houſe on the ſouth ſide of the City-road, for ſixteen decayed members, with their wives or widows. They have alſo another alms-houſe for ten decayed members, in St. John-ſtreet, near Brick-lane, Spital-fields.

FISHMONGERS. Beſides exhibitions and nominations to various ſchools and colleges, with other patronage, the alms-houſes of this company are ninety-four in number, viz. forty two at Newington, Surry, called St. Peter's Hoſpital, founded by letters patent of James I., in 1618; forty at Jeſus's Hoſpital, at Bray, Berks, founded by William Goddard, Eſq.; and twelve at Harrietſham, in Kent, founded by Mark Queſted, Eſq.

GOLDSMITHS. Sir Martin Bowes founded an alms-houſe in Woolwich for five poor widows, and veſted it in the care of this company.

GROCERS. This company maintain an alms-houſe upon their eſtate in Northamptonſhire.

HABERDASHERS. Beſide the diſtribution of many charitable gifts and eſtates, this company has Aſke's Hoſpital, founded by Robert Aſke, Eſq., an alderman of London, in the year 1692, at the upper end of Pitfield-ſtreet, in Hexton Liberty, in the pariſh of Saint Leonard, Shoreditch, for twenty poor men of the company of haberdaſhers, and as many poor boys.

LEATHERSELLERS. They have an alms-houſe for ſix poor men and their wives, founded by Chriſtopher Ayre, in White's Alley, Coleman-ſtreet; another for four men and three women, founded by John Haſilwood, in 1544, in little St. Helen's, Biſhopſgate; and another for ſix men and their wives in Hart-ſtreet, Cripplegate, founded in 1612, by Robert Rogers.

MERCHANT TAYLORS. They have alms-houſes near the weſt end of Roſemary-lane, for twenty-ſix poor widows of deceaſed members, who receive a yearly penſion, with a chaldron of coals; and a gown every third year. They have alſo another alms-houſe, on Tower-hill, appropriated to the comfort of fourteen poor ſole women, who receive penſions. By Dr. White's will this company ſend eight penſioners to Sion College alms-houſes. They are alſo veſted with the truſt of alms-houſes, at Lee, in Kent, founded by C. Boone, Eſq.

SKINNERS. The alms-houſes of this company adjoin thoſe of the Trinity Houſe, on the north ſide of Mile-end road,

road, and were founded by Lewis Newbury, in 1698, for twelve poor widows, who receive an allowance of 18*l.* per annum each. The company is alſo veſted with the truſt of the alms-houſes in Great St. Helen's, Biſhopſgate, for ſix men or women, founded in 1539, by Lady Hollis, and Mrs. Alice Smith, widow, and for ſix poor men of the company, founded by Sir Andrew Judd, knight, citizen, and ſkinner, which were rebuilt in 1729.

VINTNERS. Their alms-houſes, which ſtand on the north ſide of Mile-end road, were founded by the company for the uſe of twelve widows of deceaſed members, who receive 5*s.* 3*d.* per week each, a chaldron of coals, and about 40*s.* at certain times yearly. And another at Highgate for the like number of widows.

TRINITY COMPANY. The alms-houſes of the Trinity company, on the north ſide of Mile-end road, were founded in 1695, by the corporation, on a piece of ground given to them for that purpoſe by Captain Henry Mudd, who was an elder brother. They are twenty-eight in number, and devoted to the reſidence of decayed commanders of ſhips, or mates or pilots, and their wives or widows, whoſe penſions are 18*l.* per annum, and one chaldron and a half of coals.

BANCROFT'S ALMS-HOUSES AND SCHOOL, Mile-end. Francis Bancroft was the grandſon of Archbiſhop Bancroft; his circumſtances becoming much reduced, he was engaged for many years as one of the lord mayor's officers, during which time he acquired a fortune of 28,000*l.* in real and perſonal eſtate, which he bequeathed by his will, dated March 18, 1727, to the company of drapers, in truſt, for the purchaſe of a ſite of ground for erecting and endowing an alms-houſe, with convenient apartments, for twenty-four alms men, poor old members of that company, a chapel, and a ſchool-room for one hundred boys, with two dwelling houſes for the maſters of the ſchool: he directed for each alms-man 8*l.*, with half a chaldron of coals, and a gown of baize every third year; and the ſchool boys to be clothed, and taught to read, write, and account, for which the maſters were to receive ſalaries of 30*l.* each, in addition to their dwelling houſes: he alſo bequeathed 20*l.* yearly for coals and candles, for the uſe of the maſters and ſchools, beſide books, paper, pens, and ink; 5*l.* for a dinner to the committee of the court of aſſiſtants of the drapers' company at their annual viſitation; 3*l.* 10*s.* for two half yearly ſermons to be preached at the pariſh churches of St. Helen, Biſhopſgate, and St. Michael, Cornhill, or elſewhere, in com-

commemoration of the founder, out of which the miniſter is to have 20*s.*, the reader 10*s.*, and the clerk and ſexton 2*s.* 6*d.* each, at which the alms-men are to be preſent, and the boys alſo, who are to be catechiſed by the reader; and when placed as apprentices, 4*l.* to be given with each of them; but if they are only put to ſervice, they are to receive fifty ſhillings for clothing. In 1735, the company, purſuant to their truſt, erected a ſchool at Mile-end, and by their good management, the penſions of the alms-men have been increaſed to 18*l.* each, and 100 boys admitted on the foundation.

Bethnal-green Alms-houses and School. Were founded by Mr. Thomas Parmiter in 1722, and in conſequence of an addition by Mrs. Eliza Carter, and the augmentation of an annual ſubſcription and other aids, ſix alms-men receive ſtipends, and thirty boys, and the like number of girls, are clothed, educated, and put out apprentices.

Boone's Alms-houses, Lee, Kent. In 1623, Charles Boone, Eſq., and Mary his wife, founded an alms-houſe, with a chapel adjoining, and a ſchool-houſe for ſix poor perſons and a ſchool miſtreſs, endowing it with lands and rents then producing 57*l.* per annum. The founders committed the care of this charity to the merchant taylors' company, appointing the annual income to be thus diſpoſed of; to a chaplain 10*l.*, to a clerk 2*l.*, to the ſchool miſtreſs 9*l.*, to the penſioners 15*l.* 12*s.*, (being 1*s.* per week each,) for fuel 4*l.* 10*s.*, for clothing 4*l.* 10*s.*, books and other neceſſaries for the children, and books for the chapel, 2*l.* The penſioners to be men or women choſen from amongſt the pooreſt people of Lee, ſuch as have lived orderly, and ſupported themſelves by honeſt labour in their younger days, and can ſay the Lord's Prayer, Creed, and Ten Commandments, or are willing to learn them within two months after their admiſſion. The preſent revenue of this charity is 73*l.* per annum; the chaplain's ſalary is now 12*l.*, the miſtreſs's 9*l.*, (with 2*l.* 2*s.* for fuel,) the clerk's 4*l.*, the penſioners have 2*s.* a week each, beſides a ſmall allowance of fuel and clothes, as directed by the founders.

Caron House, Vauxhall. Founded by Noel Lord Caron, in 1622, for ſeven poor women of Lambeth, aged 60. The dowager Lady Gower, in 1773, added a legacy of 1100*l.*

East India Company's Alms-houses, Poplar. This company eſtabliſhed, about the time of their earlieſt charter, a charity at Poplar, in the pariſh of St. Dunſtan, Stepney, for

for the relief of the widows of mates and ſeamen, who had died in their ſervice. This building, becoming decayed, was taken down about the year 1801, and a handſome and complete foundation erected upon the ſite, conſiſting of two quadrangles; each of theſe two lower ſquares containing thirteen houſes for the reſidence of petty officers, or their widows. Each penſioner receives about 9*l.* or 10*l.* yearly. A third ſquare has been added about two years ſince for penſioners of the ſame deſcription. The upper ſquare conſiſts of eighteen houſes, with a garden to each, which are appropriated to the reſidence of the widows of captains and mates, who receive yearly penſions of from 30*l.* to 80*l.*, according to the rank of their deceaſed huſbands; all have coals and meat, and many obtain permiſſion for their children to dwell with them. A ſurgeon is retained, at the company's expence, to attend the whole eſtabliſhment; and a reſident chaplain is appointed by the directors, at a yearly ſalary.

EDWARDS'S ALMS-HOUSES, Chriſtchurch, Surry. Founded 1717. They are three in number, and a large fund being provided for other diſtributions, the reſidue affords a comfortable ſubſiſtence to the tenants.

MONOX'S ALMS-HOUSES, Walthamſtow. George Monox, alderman of London, erected thirteen alms-houſes on the north ſide of the church yard, at Walthamſtow, for eight men and five women, with a ſchool-houſe and apartments for a maſter.

OVERMAN'S ALMS-HOUSES, Montague-cloſe. Mrs. Alice Shaw Overman, of Newington, Surry, by deed, duly inrolled, founded eight rooms to be erected on part of her freehold eſtate, in Montague cloſe, Southwark, for the free reſidence of eight ſingle women, of whom four are to be widows, and four maidens, of fifty years of age, or upwards, members of the Church of England, and without limitation as to the place from whence they are to be ſelected, ſo that no preference is given to their pariſh.

STAFFORD'S ALMS-HOUSES, Gray's-Inn-lane. At the north-eaſt end of Gray's-Inn-lane, there was formerly a large field called Liquorpond-field, on part of which the ſtreet which now bears that name has been ſince built; this field extended along the eaſt ſide of the lane, and became partly the property of Alexander Stafford, Eſq. who was born at Froome Selwood, in Somerſetſhire, but reſided in High Holborn. In 1613, he allotted half an acre of this field, near the road, for the purpoſe of erecting an alms-houſe for ten poor unmarried perſons, inhabitants of the

pariſh

parish of St. Andrew, Holborn, and by his will, dated the 10th of May 1651, he declared the particular trusts of this and other charities; he devised to ten persons, whom he calls his beloved friends in Christ, and his good neighbours, this alms-house then newly erected, with the garden adjoining, in trust for ever, for the habitation and dwelling of ten poor people unmarried, viz. four men and six women, all of them to be elected out of the parishioners and inhabitants of that part of St. Andrew which lieth without the bars there, and all of them to be of honest life and conversation, and such as are religious, and frequent the church. He also gave them 4*l.* each per annum. In consequence of the improvement of the estates, and the diminished value of money, they are now allowed a pension of 16*l.* per annum each, with a gown once in two years, and an annual gift of one chaldron of coals to every pensioner, and two chaldrons among the whole ten.

To the foregoing it may be sufficient to add a general list of other alms-houses, as follows:

A General List of other Alms-houses.

Founders	Date	Place.	Objects.
Edward Alleyn	1614	Lamb-alley, Bishopsgate	10 Men and women.
	1616	Pest House-lane, Old-street	Ditto.
	1616	Soap-yard, Deadman's-place, Southwark	Ditto.
Susan Amyas	1655	George-yard, Old-street	8 Single men or women.
Ann Askew	1540	Beech-lane	8 Widows of drapers.
S. Atkinson	1680	Edgware	4 Poor women.
Allen Badger	1698	Hoxton	6 Ditto.
Rev.— Baremere, Presbyterian minister	1701	Alms-house-yard, Hoxton	8 Ditto.
George Baron	1682	Elbow-lane	15 Ditto.
Lady Bateman	1709	Tooting	6 Women.
Bavning's, by Paul Viscount Sudbury	1631	Gunpowder-alley, Crutched-friars, used as an alms-house for the parish	10 Poor housekeepers.
—— Bermeter	——	St. John-street, Bethnal-green	6 Women.
Thomas Browne	1734	Kingsland-road	12 Freemen and widows of framework knitters.
Mrs. Bowry	1721	Stratford	Sailors or widows in the East India service.
Nicholas Butler	1675	Little Chapel-st. Westminster	2 Men and their wives.
Lawrence Camp	——	Wormwood-street	6 Poor persons.
Ditto	1612	Friern, Barnet	12 Ditto.
Lord Caron	1623	Kingston-road, Vauxhall	7 Poor women.
W. Cleve, Alderman	1667	Kingston	12 Persons.
Mrs. Cobourn	——	Stepney	Sailors' widows of the East India Company.

Sir

Founders.	Date.	Place.	Objects.
Sir Charles Cotterell -	——	Chapel-yard, Hog-lane, Soho	8 Sailors' widows of the East India Company.
Thomas Cure	1584	College Church-yard, Deadman's-place, Southwark -	16 Men and women.
Sir Anna Dawes	1630	Putney - -	12 Persons.
Robert Daniel	1681	Hendon - - -	6 Men and 4 women of 50 years.
J. Davis -	1793	Islington - - -	8 Widows.
Captain Dixy	1634	Hog-lane, Soho - -	
Cornelius Van Dun -	reg. Eliz.	St. Margaret's, Westminster -	20 Widows.
Dutch alms houses, by [illegible] -	——	White's-alley, Moorfields -	28 Ancient women of Holland.
Judge Fuller -	1592	Old-street, at Hoxton -	12 Poor women.
Ditto -	1592	Mile-end - -	12 Old men of Stepney parish.
J. Fuller -	1529	Eagle place, Mile-end-road -	12 Poor men of 50 years.
Richard Gallard	——	Golden lane - -	13 Men and women.
Nicholas Garrett	1729	Porter's fields, Norton-falgate, by the Weavers' company -	6 Poor weavers.
Sir Thos. Gresham	1575	Broad-street, by the lord mayor and commonalty of London	8 Poor men.
Mrs. Graham	1686	Crown-st., or Hog-lane, Soho -	4 Clergymen's widows, their maiden daughters, or other gentlewomen.
—— Haw -	1686	Bow-lane, Poplar - -	6 Widows.
Emery Hill -	1677	Petty France, Westminster -	3 Men and wives.
Ditto -	1708	Rochester-row, Tothillfields	6 Ditto, and 6 widows.
Alice Hinton	1732	Plow alley, Barbican - -	12 Widows of Cripplegate parish.
Charles Hopton	1730	Christchurch, Surry, by the minister two churchwardens, and ten other trustees -	26 Poor men, who have been housekeepers.
Henry Jackson	1685	Deadman's-place, Southwark	2 Poor women.
Thomas Iles	——	Fulham - -	4 Poor women.
Sir John Iles	1613	Bromley, Middlesex -	8 Widows.
Judith Kifford	1705	Tothill-fields, Westminster -	2 Gentlewomen.
Lady Alley -	——	King street, Westminster -	4 Women.
Henry VII.	——	Little Almonry, Westminster, by dean and chapter -	12 Poor watermen and their wives, who receive 2s. 4d each couple, and a purple gown every year; and at the burial of a duke, marquis, or their ladies, in the Abbey, 26s 6d.; and for that of an earl, baron, or their ladies, 10s. 6d.
Gerard Van Lee	——	Narrow-wall, Lambeth -	8 Poor men.
Vincent & Lumley -	1672	Pesthouse-fields, Old-street -	6 Poor women of Aldgate and Bishopsgate parishes.

Founders.	Date.	Place.	Objects.
William Meggs	1558	Whitechapel-road - -	12 Poor perſons.
W. Methwold	1652	Kenſington - -	6 Women.
Henry Monger	1669	Well-ſtreet, Hackney -	6 Old men of 60 years.
Richard Morrel	1705	Near Nag's-head, Hackney-road - -	6 Poor goldſmiths.
Lady Elizabeth Morrice -	1551	Old Jewry, by Armourers' company - -	9 Widows of armourers.
Sir Ambroſe Nicolas - -	1775	Monkwell-ſtreet - -	12 Widows of ſalters.
Lady Alice Owen	1610	South end of Iſlington, by Brewers' company * -	10 Widows of Iſlington.
Rev. James Palmer, B. D.	1654	Tothill-ſide, Weſtminſter -	12 Poor men and women.
George Palyn	——	Peſthouſe-row, Old-ſtreet, by Girdlers' company - -	6 Poor girdlers.
John Pernell	1698	Mile-end - -	4 Poor drapers' widows, and 12 ſeamen's widows to be preſented by Old Stepney pariſh.
Lady Pheſannt	1744	Tottenham - -	3 Widows.
Thomas Philpot	1680	Eltham - -	4 for Eltham, and 2 for Chiſlehurſt.
Sir W. Powell	1680	Fulham - -	12 Widows.
Mary Ramſey	1596	Horn's-yard, Cloth-fair -	3 Poor women.
John Richmond	1559	Gooſe-alley, Seacoal-lane, by Armourers' company -	8 Poor old men and women.
Dame Alice Row	1702	Spring-ſtreet, Shadwell, Mile-end-road - -	Poor ſeamen and widows.
Ditto -	——	Mile-end-road - -	4 Men and 4 women.
David Smith and Sir Tho. Fitch	1584	St. Peter's-hill, Thames ſtreet, by Chriſt's Hoſpital -	6 Widows turned of 56 years.
J. Smith -	1656	Leyton - - - -	8 Perſons allotted to Spitalfields, Bethnal-green, Limehouſe, & St. George's, Eaſt.
Earl of Southampton - and Henry Carter	1656 1674	Monmouth-ſtreet -	20 Pariſhioners of St. Giles in the fields.
Henry Sprot	1709	College Church-yard, Deadman's-place, Southwark -	2 Poor old men.
Mary Squires	1795	Walthamſtow - -	6 Widows of tradeſmen of church of England.
Rev. W. Spurſtowe, D. D.	1666	Back-lane, Hackney -	6 Poor widows.
—— Underwood	1736	Lamb-alley, Biſhopſgate -	16 Old women.
R. Warren - and T. Sanney -	1485 1509	Finchley - -	6 Poor perſons.

* An arrow from the bow of an archer, exerciſing in Iſlington fields, having pierced the high crown of the hat of the foundreſs, ſhe raiſed this alms-houſe as a votive offering of gratitude for her protection.

William

Founders.	Date.	Place.	Objects.
[illegible]	1[illegible]09	Near Shoreditch, by Weavers' company - -	12 Widows of weavers.
Sir J. W[illegible] and [illegible]	1656 1720	Hornsey - -	12 Houses and schools.
[illegible]	17[illegible]	Hoxton causey - -	10 Poor women.
[illegible]	16[illegible]3	Tothill-fields - -	6 Poor old persons.
Sir R[illegible] [illegible] of London -	1413	College hill, by Mercers' company - -	13 Poor men.
J. Wilde -	1662	Edmonton - -	12 Aged persons, and one poor scholar, Cambridge.
T[illegible]by Wood -	1613	Ratcliffe, by Coopers' company	6 Coopers.
Dr. Th[illegible] Wood, bishop of Hatchfield and Coventry -	1692	Clapton -	10 Poor ancient widows.
Henry Young	1694	College Church-yard, Southwark - - -	2 Poor women.

CHARITIES FOR INSTRUCTION. Establishments of this kind, as they are most necessary, and of obvious utility, are also very numerous, not only in the metropolis, but in all parts of the British empire. Several of the most eminent of these foundations have been described in the early pages of this volume. A copious enumeration might be made from the work of Mr. Highmore, but the notice will be confined to a few of the most remarkable which had not before been specified.

ALDGATE SCHOOL. This school consists of one hundred children, sixty boys and forty girls, who are clothed and educated. It is remarkable as being the first protestant parish school which was established in London, and the first which adopted the Rev. Dr. Bell's new Madras system of education. It was instituted about the year 1688.

THE ASYLUM, *or House of Refuge for Orphan Girls*, Lambeth. This charity owes its establishment to that vigilant and active magistrate, the late Sir John Fielding; who had long observed, that "though the laws of this kingdom had provided a parish settlement for every person by birth, parentage, apprenticeship, &c. yet many cases continually occurred in which such settlements are difficult to be ascertained;" and therefore he and others were solicitous to remove, in part, this source of female wretchedness. By their exertions, and the continued endeavours of those who have hitherto conducted the plan, their benevolent intentions have been rewarded by the most signal success. Two hun-

dred deſerted females are daily ſheltered and protected from vice and want, ſupplied with food and raiment proper for them, and taught whatever can render them uſeful in their ſituation, or comfortable and happy in themſelves. Carefully inſtructed in the principles of religion, in reading, writing, needle-work, and houſehold buſineſs, and trained to habits of induſtry and regularity, a ſupply of diligent and ſober domeſtics is formed. The eſtabliſhment is under the government of a committee of ſubſcribers, annually elected. No child can be admitted who is under the age of nine or above the age of twelve years. Nor until approved of by the committee. They are bound apprentices for ſeven years, at the age of fifteen or ſooner, as domeſtic ſervants in reputable families in Great Britain. The committee, in gratitude to the Rev. Dr. Bell, have adopted his admirable mode of education at the Aſylum. It was introduced by the recommendation of his royal highneſs the duke of Cambridge, the preſident, with the approbation of his grace the archbiſhop of Canterbury.

SCHOOL FOR THE INDIGENT BLIND, Saint George's-fields, Surry. The object of the ſchool for the indigent blind is to inſtruct perſons of that deſcription in a trade, by which they may be able to provide, either wholly or in part, for their ſubſiſtence. Subſcriptions were firſt ſolicited for the inſtitution in December 1799; but ſo much time was unavoidably ſpent in procuring a proper place for the ſchool, in providing accommodations for the reception of the pupils, and in other neceſſary arrangements, that very few admiſſions could take place till toward the end of the following year.

During a period of little more than eight years, it returned thirty perſons to their families, able to earn according to their ſeveral abilities, from 7*s.* to 18*s.* per week. It has been able to increaſe the number of its pupils from fifteen males, with which it commenced in 1800, to thirty-five males and ſeventeen females; and it has eſtabliſhed a trade, from which it derives a profit of nearly 600*l.* per annum in aid of its expences. All objects under twelve are now deemed abſolutely inadmiſſible; but no age above eighteen is conſidered as a diſqualification, while the ſtrength remains unimpaired, and the fingers are flexible.

The articles at preſent manufactured in the ſchool are, ſhoemakers' thread, fine and coarſe thread, window ſaſh line, and clothes line, (of a peculiar conſtruction, and made on a machine adapted to the uſe of blind perſons,) by the females;

males; and window ſaſh line, clothes line, hampers, and wicker baſkets, rough and white bear mats, and fine mats for hearths and carriages, by the males. A large quantity of fine thread has been wove, by order of the committee, into cloth, of good quality, ſpecimens of which may be ſeen at the ſchool, and the coarſe is worked up into the clothes line, and window ſaſh line. In the manufacture of theſe different kinds of line, a very material improvement has taken place ſince it was commenced, and ſpecimens of thoſe articles have been approved by architects of the firſt eminence. The ſale of baſkets, bear mats, and white and coloured fine mats, at the ſchool, has alſo very much increaſed, and orders are conſtantly executed by the pupils to a great extent: a large aſſortment of baſkets of different ſorts and ſizes, and of rough, and white, and coloured bear mats, is always kept at the ſchool for ſale, all excellently made.

The pupils are only kept in the ſchool till they have attained a ſufficient knowledge of their trade; which, in general, where there is no want of diligence or capacity, will be in about three years; they are then diſcharged to make room for others, with a portion of their earnings, by way of encouragement, and a ſet of tools; and many have already been returned to their friends grateful for the inſtruction they have received, during their continuance in the ſchool, in religion and morality, and qualified, by the ſkill they have acquired, to contribute in a great degree towards their maintenance.

THE BLUE-COAT SCHOOL, Tothill-fields. In the pariſh of St. Margaret, Weſtminſter, there are, in addition to the uſual parochial ſchool, three eſtabliſhments for the education of poor children, by diſtinct charters and endowments; viz. the Blue-coat Hoſpital, and the Green-coat and Grey-coat Hoſpitals. This ſchool was inſtituted in 1688; its plan was to educate boys in the doctrines of the proteſtant faith, according to the Church of England; the encouragement which it received, almoſt immediately, enabled its founders to unite with it, in 1714, a ſchool for girls. It has proceeded regularly upon its original principle, and there are now fifty-two boys and thirty-four girls upon this foundation.

THE GREEN-COAT HOSPITAL. Several inhabitants of the city of Weſtminſter having reſolved to ſettle a houſe or hoſpital, like that of Chriſt's in the city of London, where poor orphans might not only be maintained with all the neceſſaries of life, but likewiſe for their future good and that

of the public, be inſtructed in manual arts, upon application to Charles I., he, by his letters patent of the 16th of November 1633, incorporated them by the appellation of the "Governors of the Hoſpital of Saint Margaret, Weſtminſter, of the foundation of King Charles;" to conſiſt of twenty governors, inhabitants of that city, to have perpetual ſucceſſion, with a right of electing governors for ſupplying vacancies, and to purchaſe lands, &c. in mortmain, to the value of 500*l.* per annum. But the civil war breaking out ſoon after, the deſign was in ſome reſpects ſuppreſſed, until, by the charitable benefactions of Charles II. and others, the veſted eſtate was raiſed to above 300*l.* per annum; by fines paid to the dean and chapter of Weſtminſter on the renewing of leaſes, it conſiſting chiefly of church lands, the annual income was conſiderably reduced; ſtill, by caſual donations the purpoſes of the hoſpital have been effected, and the ſchool is maintained for the benefit of the children of parents inhabiting the pariſh of St. Margaret, Weſtminſter, and is ſituate in Tothill-fields, near the Grey-coat School.

THE GREY-COAT HOSPITAL. In 1698 a charity-ſchool was erected in Tothill-fields, in the pariſh of St. Margaret, Weſtminſter, for the education of poor children, by the name of the "Grey-coat School," from the colour of the children's uniform. In April 1706, the truſtees were incorporated by Queen Anne. In September 1739, a mathematical ſchool was erected that boys might be inſtructed in navigation, and fitted for the ſea ſervice. There are at this time in the ſchool ninety poor children, who are clothed, inſtructed, and maintained in lodging, waſhing, and board; they are carefully educated in the principles of the chriſtian religion according to the Church of England, and publicly examined upon the expoſition of the church catechiſm or liturgy every Sunday evening at 7 o'clock.

THE CORPORATION FOR RELIEF OF POOR WIDOWS AND CHILDREN OF CLERGYMEN. The Reformation (favourable as it was to the proteſtant religion) did not make ſo competent and independent a proviſion for the inferior clergy as could have been wiſhed; for many livings, being ſtript of great part of their tythes, the incomes are inadequate to the neceſſary demands of life. An indulgence, likewiſe, then firſt granted, became eventually a conſiderable burthen to them; for the reformed clergy being allowed to marry upon their ſmall emoluments, poverty in conſequence, in many caſes, became not only their own lot, but too often the lot of a numerous offſpring. In the reign of Charles II.,

a ſociety was eſtabliſhed by the royal charter, dated 1ſt July 1678, under the name of "the Corporation for the Relief of poor Widows and Children of Clergymen." Since the date of this charter, the revenues having increaſed by various benefactions, the corporation repreſented the ſame by petition to King George I., who, on the 16th of December 1714, granted his licence to enable them to make further purchaſes and acquiſitions, not exceeding 5000*l.* per annum, and the ſubſequent augmentations have enabled the corporation to extend its bounty to many indigent but reſpectable widows.

SONS OF THE CLERGY. The laſtmentioned is not properly a charity for inſtruction, but it was introduced here, as in connexion with the preſent. Notwithſtanding the relief afforded by that inſtitution, many families of clergymen were too burthenſome for the widows to maintain. The conſideration of this circumſtance gave riſe to that humane inſtitution, "the Stewards of the Feaſt of the Sons of the Clergy;" by the aſſiſtance of which many poor children of clergymen are put apprentice, and are thereby happily provided with the means of becoming uſeful members of the community. Theſe charities, however generous and extenſive in their views, were yet many times defeated in their intentions, by children being offered who were too young to partake of the benefit they could afford; a number of gentlemen, therefore, in 1749, formed themſelves into a body, under the name of "a Society of Stewards and Subſcribers for maintaining and educating poor Orphans of Clergymen till of age to be put apprentice." This eſtabliſhment, happily increaſing as it became more generally known, has now attained a conſiderable degree of proſperity. This ſociety, ſince its inſtitution in 1749, has received into its ſchools more than ſeven hundred children of both ſexes; moſt of whom have been put apprentice, or otherwiſe provided for; the ſtricteſt care having been previouſly taken of their morals, and of their advancement and improvement in uſeful learning.

THE WIDOWS AND CHILDREN OF CLERGYMEN IN THE DIOCESE OF LONDON. In addition to the foregoing uſeful and neceſſary charities, the London clergy, to their great honour, have ſubjoined another. A meeting was held by theſe gentlemen on the 12th of February 1791, when it was agreed that a committee ſhould be appointed to give a more extenſive effect to the inſtitution for the relief of widows and children of the clergy of London, Weſtminſter, and the county of Middleſex. A ſimilar inſtitution has been eſtab-

liſhed in Eſſex, and that part of Herts, which is in the dioceſe of London.

Asylum for the Deaf and Dumb, Kent-road. The number of indigent deaf and dumb perſons in this country, unfortunately far exceeds what at the firſt ſuggeſtion of this charity was ſuppoſed, and experience has proved this fact beyond queſtion, by the number of candidates at every election, which far exceeds the vacancies to be ſupplied. The aſſiſtance here afforded to this imbecility remains no longer problematical, and may be ſeen by viſiting the aſylum: where it will be found that thoſe who once were deaf and dumb, and ignorant, are now receiving a courſe of moral and religious inſtruction, and enabled to ſpeak, read, write, cypher, and comprehend the meaning and grammatical arrangement of words; and alſo to underſtand and practice the arts of mechaniſm and handicraft, ſo as to carry on ſeveral manufactories. A liſt of the pupils' names, and the ſtations of their parents, is publiſhed annually, to ſhew that they really are objects of charity.

The Foundling Hospital, Lamb's Conduit-fields. Sometime in the reign of Queen Anne a ſcheme was projected for inſtituting an hoſpital for foundlings, and, for want of due exertions, it was abandoned; but ſeveral perſons, ſtill expecting the day when it ſhould be renewed, bequeathed legacies toward its eſtabliſhment. In 1713, Mr. Addiſon, in No. 105. of the Guardian, directed the public attention toward it, but without effect; and it was nearly ten years afterwards that Mr. Thomas Coram, the maſter of a trading veſſel to the American colonies, a man ſingularly endowed with active and diſintereſted benevolence, undertook to eſtabliſh it, and, after the labour of ſeventeen years, ſucceeded. Having obtained a charter of incorporation, the governors, in 1742, applied for an act, confirming the charter, with further powers, and an exemption from parochial juriſdiction and interference, and providing that all their lands and houſes uſed or converted into the hoſpital, or on which it ſhould be erected, ſhould, ſo long as it continued in the poſſeſſion of the corporation, be rated in ſuch proportion as it was in 1739, and not at a higher value, notwithſtanding any improvements; and that they might not be prevented from erecting and enjoying ſuch building as might be convenient, all corporate bodies and others, under any legal diſabilities, were empowered to ſell and convey, or demiſe, ſubject to the approbation of the great ſeal; and the purchaſe-money to be re-inveſted for the ſame uſes. The corporation were empowered to receive,

receive, maintain, and educate as many children as they ſhould think fit, and that any perſon might bring any child whatſoever to the hoſpital to be ſo received, &c. if the corporation *ſhould think proper to receive them*; but that no pariſh officer ſhould ſtop, moleſt, or diſturb any perſon bringing any ſuch child to, or returning from the hoſpital, under a penalty of 2*l.*; that no pariſh officer ſhould have any authority in the hoſpital, nor inquire into the birth or ſettlement of any children there, nor place them out apprentice, nor do any other act except that of collecting any parliamentary taxes. That no children, nurſes, or ſervants ſhould gain any ſettlement in that pariſh, nor any ſurplice fees be payable for baptiſm or burial of any of the children, theſe offices being performed by their own miniſter only, and no other perſon ſhould be obliged to perform them. The corporation provide a burial place, and are not entitled to the uſe of any parochial church-yard. They are alſo empowered to detain and employ the children in any ſort of labour or manufacture, or in the ſea ſervice, till the males ſhall attain the age of twenty-four years, and the females twenty-one or be married, or to bind them apprentices, or to place them out as ſervants or mariners, or to hire or let them out to work and labour, and to receive the profit, and to give them ſuch reaſonable correction as they may think proper.

In October 1740, the committee had been authoriſed to purchaſe of the earl of Saliſbury the two fields on the northern ſide of Ormond-ſtreet, as an eligible ſituation; his lordſhip declined any treaty unleſs all his land, extending to Gray's Inn-lane, and compriſing fifty-ſix acres, was included in the purchaſe, and named 7000*l.* as a price for the whole: the earl afterward liberally obviated the difficulties on this point by a donation of 500*l.* The general court accepted theſe terms, and gave orders for a completion of the contract.

It being at firſt thought impracticable to procure a ſufficient number of healthy wet-nurſes, an endeavour was made to bring up ſome of the children by hand, but experience being in favour of their being wet-nurſed in the country, the committee determined to ſend all children into the country, to remain there until three years old, and the infants to be wet-nurſed only.

The purchaſe of Lord Saliſbury's land having been completed, and benefactions for the intended building having flowed in with a liberal current, the corporation proceeded toward erecting an hoſpital on their new eſtate; and on the

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16th of September 1742, the foundation-ſtone of the weſtern wing was laid, and the building begun upon a deſign prepared by Mr. Jacobſen, one of the governors and firſt benefactors; the eſtimate amounted to 6555*l.* 17*s.* 1*d.*

The firſt anniverſary was held in the enſuing ſpring, the weſtern wing was finiſhed, and the houſes previouſly occupied for the charity in Hatton-garden, delivered up in October 1745. In the following March, a ſubſcription was opened for building the chapel. Mr. Jacobſen's eſtimate was reduced to 4195*l.* 17*s.* 4*d.*, but it coſt in the whole 6490*l.*, which was leſs than the ſubſcriptions. In 1749, (at the inſtance of Mr. Emerſon, one of the governors, who afterward bequeathed to the hoſpital the reſidue of his eſtates, amounting to upward of 11,000l.,) the general committee, in order that the girls might be kept ſeparate from the boys, was authoriſed to proceed to the building of the eaſtern wing, which, together with the treaſurer's houſe, was ready for habitation in 1752. The whole building was originally calculated to hold four hundred children, and the talents and public ſpirit of ſeveral artiſts contributed to its embelliſhment, among whom were Mr. Hogarth, Mr. Hayman, Mr. Highmore, and Ryſbrack. More ſolid benefit was derived from the benevolence of Handel, who, upon the building of the chapel, gave an organ, and the benefit of his oratorio the Meſſiah, the performance of which he conducted himſelf; this he repeated for ſeveral years, which produced to the charity 6700*l.*, and by his will he bequeathed to it his property in the muſic; after his death, in 1759, Smith conducted theſe oratorios there, but becoming at laſt unproductive, they were diſcontinued.

Before the end of 1752, the hoſpital had received one thouſand and forty children, of whom five hundred and fifty-nine were then in its protection, and the annual expence was not leſs than 5000*l.*, far exceeding the income, which did not then amount to more than 1050*l.*; a reduction of their number by an order was propoſed, but not adopted, for in 1754 they conſiſted of ſix hundred; the governors therefore, by petition to parliament, ſtated the whole of their tranſactions, and ſubmitted their caſe to conſideration. The Houſe of Commons, on the 6th of April 1756, paſſed three introductory reſolutions: that the enabling this hoſpital to receive all the children that ſhould be offered was the only method to render the charity of laſting and general utility: that the aſſiſtance of parliament was neceſſary, and that it ſhould be enabled to appoint proper places in all counties, ridings, or diviſions of the king-

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dom, for the reception of all expoſed and deſerted young children. The Houſe then voted 10,000*l.*, accompanied with a condition for the reception of children under a certain age; which the corporation firſt fixed at two, then at ſix, and afterwards at twelve months. On the 2d of June, the firſt day of general reception, one hundred and ſeventeen children were received, and before the 31ſt of December 1757, a ſpace of little more than one year and an half, their number amounted to five thouſand five hundred and ten.

The charity now obtained the ſplendid name of a national eſtabliſhment. The king had declared himſelf its patron, large ſums were granted, and the number of infants increaſed to ſix thouſand, which they had no adequate income to maintain; country hoſpitals were eſtabliſhed at Ackworth in Yorkſhire; in Kent, Salop, and Bucks, and afterwards in Cheſhire, and at Barnet in Middleſex.

From this prodigious increaſe in the eſtabliſhment, the ſite of the hoſpital was in many inſtances converted to a burial ground; many children received at the gate did not live to be carried into the wards; others were ſent from diſtant pariſhes to ſecure them from the riſk of becoming chargeable, theſe were returned to their parents, and proſecutions were commenced at the expence of the charity; this gave riſe to a material alteration in the mode of reception; the Houſe of Commons, in April 1759, diſapproved this practice, in the next ſeſſion, an inquiry was inſtituted, and on the 8th of February 1760, the Houſe reſolved that the general admiſſion of all children indiſcriminately, under a certain age, had been attended with many evil conſequences, and ſhould be diſcontinued, and ordered an eſtimate of the expence of maintaining thoſe already in the hoſpital. The governors, on the following day, reſolved to continue to execute the purpoſes for which they were incorporated, ſo far as they could, not doubting that parliament would enable them to ſupport all ſuch children as they had or ſhould receive, in obedience to their reſolutions.

The corporation received continual parliamentary aſſiſtance, during fifteen years, till 1771, when it ceaſed, at an average of not leſs than 33,000*l.* per annum, and the number of children in 1769 was reduced to 1000, by apprenticing all who could be placed out. The battle of Minden had afforded great cauſe for the conſideration of this ſociety, which they very humanely and judiciouſly exerciſed, in receiving the orphans of many of the ſoldiers who died in

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that war, from four to twelve years of age; and the court reſolved, that if, at any future time, application ſhould be made for the reception of any other children in ſimilar caſes of diſtreſs, the general committee ſhould be empowered to receive ſo many as they ſhould think proper, of ages not exceeding five years; this limitation was done away in 1761, upon a further reception of orphans of ſoldiers, and the committee were empowered to receive thoſe of ſoldiers or ſailors, although their age ſhould exceed five years, their number and circumſtances being ſpecially reported to the next court; ſuch an extenſion of the charity, and a conſiderable deficiency of ſubſcriptions during the parliamentary grants, ſerved to incumber the reſources, and to render both reduction and economy abſolutely neceſſary, eſpecially when it was found that many of the children out of ſo large a number did not, from various cauſes, poſſeſs ſufficient capacities of health or of mind to be placed out as apprentices. Some of the preſents heretofore given at the expiration of their apprenticeſhips were withheld, but have ſince been renewed with good effect, and their public appearance in the chapel has operated as an example to the others. The country hoſpitals were alſo diſcontinued, and the eſtabliſhment reduced to its permanent income.

The improvements of the revenue by granting building leaſes of the lands not wanted was the next method adopted; and in May 1775, the committee were empowered to receive propoſals, and contract for letting the land on the ſouth ſide of the private road leading into Gray's Inn-lane, for a term of ninety-nine years. The above reſolution was ſoon after reſcinded, and the ſcheme of building was poſtponed until the leaſes of the Rugby ſchool ſhould expire, and a treaty was opened for exchanging ſome of their land; the rents did not then exceed 81*l.* 3*s.*; no arrangement was effected, and the exchange was indefinitely poſtponed.

A principal reſource was derived from the collections at the chapel, which were conſiderably augmented by three blind children, whom the committee had cauſed to be inſtructed in muſic; the whole receipt in 1766 was 37*l.* 14*s.* 1*d.*, in 1795 was 1594*l.* 1*s.* 3*d.*, and in 1806 was 2816*l.* 11*s.* 6*d.* Their ſyſtem proceeded to the reduction of ſome and union of other offices, by which an annual ſaving is computed at not leſs than 100*l.*; and ſubſequent to theſe methods of reform, a kitchen has been conſtructed on the plan of Count Rumford, and "the direction with regard to the conſumption of fuel having been ſtrictly adhered

hered to, it has been found to anſwer very completely;" the ſaving in coals has been twenty-five chaldrons yearly; one cook in the place of two finds it an eaſy duty, and the iron work requires leſs repair, &c.

Ten acres of the fifty-ſix purchaſed of Lord Saliſbury had been occupied by the hoſpital and its conveniences, the addition of as much more in the areas and ſquares immediately ſurrounding it is the leaſt quantity that has ever been propoſed to be left uncovered by building; ſo that the hoſpital in any event was to ſtand in the centre of twenty acres of ground; ſome reaſons operated in the minds of ſeveral governors againſt any improvement of the remaining thirty-ſix acres, but the increaſing expence having exceeded the income, a committee of inquiry was appointed in 1785, and the queſtion of building was again reſumed in March 1787, the committee were empowered to receive propoſals, which authority was afterwards recalled, on the ground that the loſs of circulation of air would be detrimental and contrary to the original inſtitution. This reſolution was again reſcinded in the following December, and ſo much of the eſtate as lies ſouth of, and adjoining to the road leading from the gates of the hoſpital to Gray's Inn-lane was ordered to be let on building leaſes; this was confirmed in March 1788.

In April 1789, a petition was preferred to the Duke of Bedford, for permitting openings into his private road, but as no favourable anſwer was obtained, the committee proceeded to ſtake out the eaſtern part of their eſtate; and a ſelect committee of five governors named, who were empowered to conduct the buſineſs of letting the land. By their eſtimate the probable acceſſion of ground rents would amount to 4000*l.*, and the ſubſequent meaſures have reduced this calculation almoſt to a certainty, as the net rental has been encreaſed to 3045*l.* 12*s.* 4*d.*, excluſive of 552*l.* 15*s.* under a pepper corn rent, but which are now receivable.

A plan of conſiderable merit prepared by Mr. Merryweather, the ſecretary, for the propoſed buildings, was adopted in January 1791, in which the opening of Queen-ſquare, though with ſome diminution of the expected ground-rents, was propoſed to be continued of the ſame width over the eſtate; a benefit which, after every effort of perſuaſion, the proprietors of the ſquare declined to accept; in December 1793, an advantageous propoſal was made for the ground lying north of Queen-ſquare, and a meeting of the inhabitants of the ſquare with the committee having produced no alteration of opinion, the ground was at length

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let to Mr. Burton, on a plan as favourable as well could be to the adjoining ſquare. In December 1794, the building committee reported the aſſent of the Duke of Bedford, for four openings into his road at the north end of Southampton-row.

The gradual and ſplendid progreſs of the buildings, and an increaſe in the number and amount of benefactions and chapel collections, have enabled this corporation to replace the ſtock which they had been compelled to ſell for the maintenance of the charity, to repair the hoſpital, to liquidate its outſtanding debts, and at the ſame time to gradually increaſe the eſtabliſhment of its children, with a proſpect of further augmentation; and for this good purpoſe the committee are directed to report how far the progreſſive increaſe of the rents and reſources will juſtify an extenſion of the charity; and in order to open the doors equally and impartially to all proper objects, notice is publiſhed of vacancies for ſeveral children.

The ordinary age of reception is under two months; the previous good character and preſent neceſſity of the mother, and the deſertion of the father, are inquired into, and alſo whether reception and ſecrecy will be attended with the conſequence of the mother's being replaced in a courſe of virtue, and in a way of obtaining an honeſt livelihood: where theſe concurrent circumſtances can be aſcertained on the teſtimony of credible perſons, the unfortunate mother is requeſted to apply herſelf with her own petition, and is aſſured that both recommendation and patronage will be unneceſſary and uſeleſs; theſe principles are ſtrictly attended to. If the mothers are in diſtreſs, the general committee have a diſcretion to make them ſome weekly allowance till the day of the child's admittance, excluſive of which the governors have formed a fund for the occaſional relief of thoſe whoſe circumſtances have compelled them to part with or pawn their clothes for the maintenance of their children, and other unavoidable expences, and thereby have been prevented from getting into ſervice or of obtaining other means of a livelihood.

The Masonic Charity. The deſign of this inſtitution is to raiſe the means of clothing and educating the ſons of deceaſed and indigent ancient freemaſons; it was founded in the year 1798, and has received great aſſiſtance and encouragement from its noble patron, his grace the Duke of Athol. Children may be admitted at ſeven years of age, and continued till fourteen; they are taught reading,

ing, writing, and arithmetic; and when they quit the ſchool are, in certain caſes, bound apprentices to ſuitable trades, premiums being allowed toward placing them out.

THE FREEMASON'S CHARITY *for Female Children*, Saint George's-fields. The purpoſe of this inſtitution is to preſerve the female offspring of indigent freemaſons from the dangers and misfortunes to which a diſtreſſed ſituation naturally expoſes them. To extend the hand of compaſſion, to give aſſiſtance where moſt wanted, and to render this deſign extenſively beneficial, a plan was ſubmitted to her royal highneſs the Ducheſs of Cumberland, by the Chevalier Ruſpini. Her Royal Highneſs humanely condeſcended to take it under her protection, and accepted the title of patroneſs. His royal Highneſs the Duke of Cumberland, grand maſter, and their royal highneſſes the Prince of Wales, the Dukes of York and Glouceſter, expreſſed their approbation and diſpoſition to ſupport it by their patronage. In conſequence, on the 25th of March 1788, this charity was inſtituted for maintaining, clothing, and educating the female children and orphans of indigent brethren belonging to the ancient and honourable ſociety of free and accepted maſons. The great encouragement it has ſince received has enabled the governors to increaſe the number of children from fifteen to ſixty, to which number ſuch augmentation will from time to time take place as the fund of the charity will admit. They are admitted into the ſchool from the age of five to ten years, without any reſtriction as to their parochial ſettlement, whether in town or country, and continued until they attain the age of fifteen; they are carefully inſtructed in every domeſtic employment, and when they quit the ſchool are bound apprentices for four years, either to trades, or as domeſtic ſervants, which-ever may be found moſt ſuitable to their reſpective capacities, and have a ſupply of clothing given them to the value of *4l.* 4*s.*, and as an encouragement for ſerving their apprenticeſhip faithfully, a premium of *5l.* 5*s.* is alſo given them, on producing their maſter or miſtreſs's teſtimonial of their good behaviour.

THE OFFERTORY SCHOOL, Little Vine-ſtreet. In this eſtabliſhment the alms and contributions offered at the communion of the Lord's Supper, in the pariſh church and chapels of Saint James, Weſtminſter, are diſpoſed of as a fund for the benefit of poor children. It has been found ſufficient to eſtabliſh and maintain a day-ſchool where fifty boys are taught to read, write, and caſt accounts, according to Dr. Bell's method; they have alſo a new ſuit

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of clothes at Whitſuntide every year; are carefully inſtructed in the doctrines of chriſtianity, according to the church of England, are conducted to church on the Lord's day, to early prayers at ſeven o'clock in the ſummer, and at eight in the winter, and catechiſed at the uſual times. The ſchool is ſuperintended by the miniſter and pariſh officers, and great care is taken that the oblations given on ſuch ſolemn occaſions are faithfully adminiſtered. The admiſſion of ſcholars is limited to the ſons of pariſhioners, who are educated for trades and handicrafts, to which at the uſual age they are bound apprentice.

THE BENEVOLENT SOCIETY OF ST. PATRICK. A conſiderable number of noblemen and gentlemen, natives of Ireland, deſcendants from natives, or connected by property, ties of blood, the high offices they have filled, or alliances with families of that kingdom, met on the 17th of March 1784, and formed themſelves into a body, under the name of "the Benevolent Society of St. Patrick." They immediately ſet on foot a ſubſcription for the eſtabliſhment of ſchools in or near this metropolis for the education of children born of Iriſh parents, reſiding in or near London. Under the ſanction of the king, and the preſidency of the Duke of Kent, then Prince Edward, a general meeting was held, when a correſpondence between the truſtees of a former Iriſh charitable ſociety and the Marquis of Buckingham was taken into conſideration; and it was referred to a committee to report a plan for the union of the two inſtitutions, and alſo a code of rules. In March 1799, it was arranged that ſixteen children elected by the monthly committee out of the general body of 120, ſolely on the ſcore of their perſonal merits, ſhould be entirely provided for, out of the fund, without expence to their parents. The ſociety, in 1801, engaged a piece of ground in St George's-fields, for the purpoſe of erecting a ſuitable building by ſubſcription, where the children may by degrees be taken wholly under their own care.

THE PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY, St. George's-fields. This inſtitution was formed in 1788, for the prevention of crimes, and the reform of the criminal poor, by the encouragement of induſtry and the culture of good morals among thoſe children who were training up to vicious courſes, public plunder, infamy, and ruin; and was deſigned as an introduction to a new ſyſtem of national police.

The children taken under the care of this ſociety are either the offſpring of convicted felons, or ſuch as have themſelves been engaged in criminal practices.

The firſt are orphans, under circumſtances which, inſtead of recommending them to the protection of others, operate to exclude them from reputable ſituations, and to render them obnoxious.

The children of the ſecond claſs are often ſuch as have been guilty of offences at an age which alone ſaves them from legal puniſhment; in ſuch caſes, they become hardened by detection, perhaps publicly diſgraced, and thenceforward the companions of diſhoneſty: ſuch are thoſe who have been conducted to the magiſtrate for thefts, pilfering, and fraud; and diſcharged for want of legal evidence, or through unwillingneſs of parties to proſecute; or ſuch as after conviction have been recommended to the care of this ſociety as fitter ſubjects for diſcipline and education than for the vengeance of the law.

It is not abſolutely neceſſary that a child ſhould be carried into a court of juſtice, or before a magiſtrate, previous to its being received by the ſociety as a criminal: but it ſhould be obſerved that objects are not admitted on account of mere youthful irregularities, or the effects of a truant diſpoſition, or of ſuch acts as bear the complexion of vagrancy, rather than of fraud or felony; for though the ſociety is aware that ſuch conduct is one ſtep towards deſtruction, it is obliged from the number of applications made in behalf of criminal children, to confine its attention to caſes of great delinquency. There are ſome within its walls, upon whom (though ſentenced to tranſportation or death) the law muſt have had its courſe, if the inſtitution had not, by preparing an aſylum for the offender when pardoned, afforded to the crown an opportunity of exerciſing mercy without endangering the public ſafety.

The children under the care of this ſociety are inſtructed in ſeveral uſeful trades; particularly thoſe of the printer, the copper-plate-printer, the book-binder, ſhoe-maker, taylor, rope-maker, and twine-ſpinner; and as the capital of the ſociety is employed in theſe manufactures, perſons purchaſing of or employing theſe youths do a charity without loſs to themſelves. The girls are entirely trained to domeſtic induſtry.

THE PHILOLOGICAL SOCIETY. This ſociety comprehends a ſchool for general inſtruction and clothing of the ſons of poor clergymen, naval and military officers, reduced tradeſmen, and mechanics: it was inſtituted in 1792, under the patronage of the Duke of York, by Mr. Thomas Collingwood, of Upper Titchfield-ſtreet, Mary-le-bone. The children who diſcover particular talents or genius, have an oppor-

opportunity of learning the rudiments of the Latin or French language; and thoſe boys who are intended for the ſea ſervice are taught the general principles of geography, navigation, and drawing.

RAINE'S CHARITIES, St. George's in the Eaſt. Henry Raine, Eſq. the founder of this inſtitution, having acquired a conſiderable eſtate conſiſting chiefly of freehold eſtates in the pariſh and neighbourhood of St. George in the Eaſt, where he had been bred up from childhood and then reſided, and having aſſiſted his relations, who were then in proſperity and no longer needed his protection, conceived it a duty of gratitude to Providence, and obedience to the precepts of Chriſtianity, to ſettle part of his ſubſtance for charitable purpoſes. With this view he contributed and added to thoſe contributions as his eſtate increaſed; and afterwards built two commodious large ſchools in Fawdon-fields, in that pariſh, about the year 1719, and ſettled regulations for their management. On the 22d of June 1736, he executed a conveyance to the Rev. Dr. William Simpſon, the rector, and four other gentlemen, in order to make proviſion for the maintenance, ſupport, and inſtruction of fifty boys and fifty girls, and for the habitation of a maſter and miſtreſs. By his will he added to his former donations, and made a ſingular proviſion for beſtowing annually, on one girl of ſix who ſhould in the courſe of the year leave the ſchool, with proper certificates of regularity, and exact obſervance of religious duties, 100l. as a marriage portion, to be paid on her wedding day. The female to whom the donation is given, becomes entitled to it by drawing a lot, and on the day of wedding, which is always on the firſt of May, 5l. in addition to the portion is ſpent for a dinner.

SUNDAY SCHOOL SOCIETY. To promote the deſign of adminiſtering religious inſtruction to children of the poor on the Sabbath-day, inſtead of their being ſuffered to waſte it as a holiday in thoughtleſs idleneſs, Robert Raikes, Eſq. of Painſwic, in Glouceſterſhire, firſt ſuggeſted and put in practice a Sunday ſchool in his own diſtrict, and under his own inſpection: his ſucceſs ſoon induced others to follow the example. Towns and villages, eſtabliſhed their ſchools, and their importance excited a ready liberality towards their ſupport; but many of theſe were ſet up in very ſmall diſtricts, remote from either the county town or the metropolis, and the want of patronage threatened their diſcontinuance. The benevolence of the capital was therefore ſolicited for their encouragement and preſervation, and for the ſupply of ſuch books as were neceſſary toward their progreſs. In

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the year 1785, therefore, the Sunday School Society was eſtabliſhed in London. The plan is to promote by correſpondence and effectual communication the eſtabliſhment of Sunday ſchools in the country, to induce the opulent inhabitants to viſit and ſuperintend them, to ſolicit ſubſcriptions for them, and to ſuggeſt improvements; to provide Bibles, Teſtaments, and ſpelling-books, for the uſe of the ſcholars; to direct that all the ſcholars attend ſome place of public worſhip every Sunday, as their parents may approve, clean and decent in their dreſs and behaviour; and during the intervals of the day, that they be taught to read the Bible and to learn the principles of the chriſtian faith. The ſucceſs of the inſtitution has extended it through England, Wales, Ireland, and the adjacent iſlands. The objects of this charity are poor perſons of each ſex and of any age; their teachers, by the directions of the committee, or of their correſpondents, *oblige all* who are committed to their care to attend public worſhip, unleſs prevented by illneſs or any other ſufficient cauſe: they alſo take care that their ſcholars are clean, and if any of them are guilty of lying, ſwearing, pilfering, and talking in an indecent manner, or otherwiſe miſbehave themſelves, they are to reprove them; and, if after repeated reproof, they are not reformed, they are diſmiſſed from the ſchool. The religious obſervation of the Chriſtian Sabbath being an eſſential object with this ſociety, the exerciſes of the ſcholars on that day are reſtricted to reading in the Old and New Teſtament, and to ſpelling, as a preparative for it. This is the ſummary of the regulations of each ſchool, which the teacher reads to them on the firſt Sunday in every month. During the firſt fourteen years which this ſociety exiſted 2,917 ſchools were eſtabliſhed, and 246,724 ſcholars inſtructed in them, and the books diſtributed were 249,896 ſpelling-books, 55,881 Teſtaments, and 7,423 Bibles, and to ſuch ſchools as needed pecuniary aſſiſtance the ſum of 4,165*l.* 12*s.* 5*d.* was advanced.

Welsh School. The charity ſchool of the moſt honourable and loyal ſociety of Ancient Britons was eſtabliſhed for inſtructing, clothing, maintaining, and apprenticing poor children, deſcended of Welſh parents, born in and near London, who have no parochial ſettlement therein. It was eſtabliſhed on the 1ſt of March, 1714, in honour of the birth-day of her Royal Highneſs Caroline, then Princeſs of Wales, which fortunately happened to be coincident with the commemoration of the titular ſaint of the principality. His Royal Highneſs George, then Prince of Wales, upon an addreſs, preſented on the 24th of the ſame month, was

pleaſed to honour the ſociety with his patronage, under the ſtyle and title of "The moſt honourable and Royal Society of Ancient Britons." The ſubſcriptions at firſt being ſmall, the ſociety engaged a room near Hatton-garden, and took only twelve poor children upon the eſtabliſhment. When their charitable deſigns became better known, and the ſubſcriptions increaſed, they increaſed the number to forty, and in 1737, a ſubſcription was begun for erecting a ſchool on Clerkenwell-green. They were ſoon enabled to take ſome poor children entirely on themſelves, not only to be educated, but boarded and clothed. As the ſchool-houſe on Clerkenwell-green would not admit of enlargement ſufficient for this purpoſe, a piece of freehold ground was purchaſed in 1772, and ſecured to the uſe of the charity, on the right-hand ſide of the road from Gray's Inn-lane to Pancras, which is ſufficient to accommodate one hundred children.

Miscellaneous Charities. Beſide thoſe already deſcribed in claſſes, there are many other charitable inſtitutions which extend the benefits of benevolence, both in donations and inſtruction to numerous ranks of ſociety. Some are for the converſion, civilization, and general improvement, by various means, of thoſe to whom the advantages of revelation and ſocial improvement have been hitherto unknown. Such are the African Inſtitution; the American Indian Civilization: the Society for Propagation of the Goſpel in Foreign Parts; the Hibernian Society; the Miſſionary Society; that for Miſſions to Africa and the Eaſt; and the Society for Converſion of Negroes. Some give to thoſe whom indigence or indifference would otherwiſe deprive of ſuch benefits, the ineſtimable volumes of the Holy Scripture, and the ſound deductions drawn from them by learned and religious men: ſuch are the Britiſh and Foreign Bible Society; the Naval and Military Bible Society; the Society for promoting Chriſtian Knowledge; the Endeavour Society; the Society for promoting Religious Knowledge among the Poor; and the Religious Tract Society. In ſome inſtances individuals have devoted ſums of money to the relief of particular calamities; and charities are diſtributed according to their directions by corporations; or in other caſes aſſociated bodies continue to collect and diſtribute monies according to an eſtabliſhed plan. Among the former of theſe may be claſſed Came's, Hethrington's, and Stock's charities for the blind; and Came's charity for the deaf and dumb. Among the latter are found the Choral Fund; the Literary Fund for the relief

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of authors in diſtreſs; the Muſical Fund, and New Muſical Fund. Some require from the claimant a previous ſacrifice of ſome portion of his own gains, and have, therefore, ſome affinity with benefit ſocieties; as the Society for Relief of diſabled Merchant Seamen, their Widows and Children; the Society of Schoolmaſters, the Theatrical Fund, and the Stock Exchange Fund.

A few other charities merit particular enumeration: theſe are

THE SOCIETY FOR BETTERING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR. Founded in 1796, with a view to examine the cauſe of diſtreſs, to remove difficulties in the way of parochial relief, to facilitate the diſtribution of charitable benefactions, to inſpect workhouſes and charitable inſtitutions in order to point out improvements, and to aid the important cauſe of religious inſtruction to the mature and to the young. Out of this ſociety has ſprung a committee of ladies, who intereſt themſelves in all the objects as far as comes within the cognizance of female regard. The reports and other publications of this ſociety are deemed of great value and importance.

THE SOCIETY FOR THE DISCHARGE AND RELIEF OF PERSONS IMPRISONED FOR SMALL DEBTS THROUGHOUT ENGLAND, *inſtituted in February* 1772. Its objects are thoſe whoſe debts or compoſition for them does not exceed 10*l.*; thoſe have the preference who are aged or infirm; have the largeſt families unprovided for; are the moſt likely to be uſeful to the community, and appear to have loſt their liberty by unavoidable misfortunes, and not by fraud, vice, or extravagance. The committee are empowered to relieve helpleſs families which ſuffer by the faults of their principals, and no debtor can be relieved a ſecond time. In the ſame ſpirit with this is,

THE PHILANTHROPIC SOCIETY, AT MILE-END, FOR THE SAME AND OTHER PURPOSES. One moiety of the ſubſcription is applied for the diſcharge of poor debtors from impriſonment, and the other for relief of poor perſons and families, as the directors think fit. The annual ſubſcription is only 12*s.*, and 5*l.* 5*s.* conſtitutes a life governor.

THE ROYAL HUMANE SOCIETY, eſtabliſhed A. D. 1774, by Dr. Cogan, with the co-operation of the late Dr. Hawes, for recovery of the apparently dead by drowning, or other cauſes of ſuffocation. The obvious uſefulneſs of this ſociety has given great extenſion to its operations; and there are in all parts of the kingdom medical men inſtructed and ready

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to apply to ſufferers the means of reſtoring animation. Ingenuity and induſtry have alſo been inceſſantly employed in improving and furthering theſe means, and in communicating the reſults for the benefit of mankind.

If the charities here mentioned conſtituted the whole maſs of voluntary donation, no man could contemplate ſuch a ſacrifice, in addition to the vaſt revenue raiſed by the poor's rate, without aſtoniſhment and reverence; but, in fact, it does not comprize any thing like the total of donation in and near the metropolis. Many charities have not been named on account of their ſimilarity to others, and the apparent tediouſneſs of recapitulating mere names. But beſides theſe, there are few conſiderable towns in the kingdom that have not their alms-houſes, their hoſpital, their infirmary, their diſpenſary, and their charitable eſtabliſhments and collections, according to the need and circumſtances of the neighbourhood. In moſt places *opulent individuals* ſupply the poor in illneſs, particularly *lying-in*, and in other caſes of neceſſity, *with bed-clothing*, linen, medicine, wine, and food. *In* the enumeration already made, it muſt have ſtruck the reader that there is no mode of diſtreſs that has not ſome relief appointed, nor any ſtate in which a pauper can be in ſociety, in which benevolence does not tender its aid. In the moment of birth, in the perils of infancy and adoleſcence, nurture, education, and inſtruction in a trade are offered; when the parties behave themſelves well in theſe firſt ſtages, moderate premiums facilitate their entrance into life. In the ſubſequent progreſs of man every ſpecies of calamity has its diſtinct mode of relief, and every kind of neceſſity its correſponding ſupply. All viſitations of Providence, all diſeaſes or hurts incidental to trade or ariſing from accident; the ſudden attack of illneſs, or the inevitable waſting of age; penury, from whatever cauſe it may ariſe; all have claims on the funds devoted by conſiderate benevolence to the public good. Nor is it always neceſſary that the claim ſhould be ſo made as to wound the feelings of thoſe who are aſhamed to ſolicit. The true Chriſtian gentleneſs of charity has deviſed means, as in the donations from the literary fund, to conceal from the moſt inquiſitive ſcrutiny, the names of thoſe who would hold down their heads if it were known that they had received alms. They then who have begun life virtuouſly, and are arreſted in their progreſs by misfortune, may look to public benevolence as a ſecure reſource; but muſt they who have ſtrayed from virtue abandon themſelves to deſpair? No. To the repentant proſtitute, to the diſeaſed libertine, to the offſpring

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of licentious intercourſe, abandoned by its parent, and to the ſcorned outcaſt of ſociety, the child of the condemned malefactor, the houſe of charity opens its door. Religious inſtruction reclaims and purifies; virtuous example and continual induſtry create good habits, and they who in a leſs benevolent ſtate of ſociety would continue to trace the meanders of vice and crime to their termination in deſpair, or at the gallows, regain the delightful paths of virtue and honeſty, become regenerated members of ſociety, live in peace, and die in hope.

END OF THE THIRD VOLUME.

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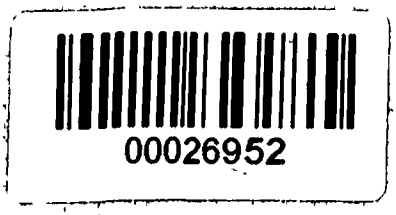
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